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The Official Journal of the American Sociological Society

Volume 22
Number 4

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SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF CLASSES IN A MIDDLE WESTERN COMMUNITY*

AUGUST B. HOLLINGSHEAD

Yale University

INTRODUCTION

THIS PAPER is concerned with a description of a series of cultural characteristics associated with four strata of the social structure in a Middle Western community of some 10,000 population,¹ which we shall hereafter call "Elmtown."² Elmtown is an all white community located near the center of the corn belt on a rich glaciated plain bisected by a navigable river. Its highly mechanized agricultural activities are integrated around corn and hogs, with the production of small grains and soy beans as secondary crops. Coal mines and three large factories give the community an industrial

as well as an agricultural base.³ Elmtown is the county seat of "Home" County, and the only town in the county with a population above 2,500. All types of retail and repair businesses, services, and professions common to a prosperous county seat town of this size are found here. In addition, it has a locally-owned daily newspaper, hospital, and a central high school.

Elmtown's social structure is composed of five strata⁴ whose members understand with varying degrees of precision how each ranks in the hierarchical order. Assignment to a given stratum or class within the social structure appears to be dependent upon the possession and expression of a constellation of culture traits that are evaluated by the members of the community as appropriate to that particular stratum.

* Adapted from a paper given before American Sociological Society at the annual meeting, December 28-30, 1946, Chicago, Illinois.

¹ The town's population was about 6,200 in 1941; rural farm and rural non-farm population comprised the remainder, 3,800, and was distributed over the 160 square miles of communal area.

² Materials discussed here are taken from an extensive study of 735 adolescents of high school age focused on the relationships between the behavior of the adolescents and the position their families occupy in the social structure of the community. The field work was completed between June, 1941 and December, 1942.

This study was made possible by a Post Doctoral Research Training Fellowship from the Social Science Research Council in 1941-42, and grants-in-aid from the Graduate School, Indiana University, which are hereby gratefully acknowledged.

METHODOLOGICAL PROCEDURES

The data used in this paper were collected from two different sources. On the one hand,

³ The largest factory normally employed (1939-41) between 450 and 600; the next sized one 200 to 250; and the smallest 40 to 50 persons.

⁴ The terminology used here is that developed by Kingsley Davis, "A Conventional Analysis of Stratification," *American Sociological Review*, 7: 309-321, Je. 1942. Also see Kingsley Davis and Wilbert E. Moore, "Some Principles of Stratification," *American Sociological Review*, 10:242-249, Ap. 1945.

the stratification was accomplished by a rating procedure developed in the community;⁵ on the other, the materials discussed under each class were collected directly from the families concerned, and sources other than the raters by the use of schedules, interviews, and other appropriate field

cluster of "typical" traits is emphasized rather than deviant ones. However, the traits are not forced into a procrustean bed for the sake of typology, even though the characterization of cultural patterns associated with each stratum is our general objective. Moreover, our concern is not with the number of

TABLE I. MEAN RATE(D) SCORES OF CLASSES, NUMBER OF RATERS, AND NUMBER OF CASES BY CLASS

Class	Scores ^a	Mean Rated Score	A.D. ^b	No. of Raters	Mean No. of Raters	No. of Cases
I	.51-1.50	1.05	.04	21	21.0	4
II	1.51-2.50	1.93	.16	23	14.3	31
III	2.51-3.50	2.91	.25	20	13.4	158
IV	3.51-4.50	4.17	.37	26	12.1	312
V	4.51-5.50	4.71	.21	22	10.5	230

^a The data on families in Class I are combined with Class II hereafter in the tabular materials.

^b Persons assigned to each class by each rater were given a weighted score. The weights used were Class I, 1; Class II, 2; Class III, 3; Class IV, 4; Class V, 5. The interval is the theoretical range of scores, except for Classes I and V, where the functional intervals were only one-half of the theoretical range; that is, 1.50 to 1.0 and 5.00 to 4.51.

^a Average deviation was calculated from the mean.

techniques. The scores essential to the stratification of the families of the 735 cases included in the study are presented in Table I.

In the following description of the characteristics associated with each class, a

classes, but with how fruitful the number used may be in understanding the organization and function of the community as a sociological entity.

CHARACTERISTICS OF FOUR STRATA

Class II^a

Almost exactly one-half of the families in Class II have achieved their positions through their own efforts (the remainder have inherited them), but a further rise is virtually impossible as their origins are too well known and not enough time has elapsed between the start of their ascent and the present to accord them recognition within Class I. Psychologically, Class II persons are aware of the prestige differential between themselves and Class I. Nevertheless, they attempt to identify themselves with it in every possible way and exaggerate the social distance between themselves and Class III.

Income is earned largely by the male head who actively follows a profession, operates a family-owned business, industry, or farm,

^a 31 Raters placed the families of the 735 adolescents in the social structure. The technique followed differs from the rating devices used by a number of sociologists in the past decade in that it was based on the use of a standardized Control List of 20 families. See: Wilson Gee, "A Qualitative Study of Rural Depopulation in a Single Township: 1900-1930," *American Journal of Sociology*, 33: 210-221, Se. 1933; Carl Frederick Reuss, "A Qualitative Study of Depopulation in a Remote Rural District: 1900-1930," *Rural Sociology*, 2:66-75, Mar. 1937; George A. Lundberg, "The Measurement of Socio-economic Status," *American Sociological Review*, 5:29-39, Fe. 1940; Edgar A. Schuler, "Social and Economic Status in a Louisiana Hills Community," *Rural Sociology*, 5:69-87, Mar. 1940; Harold F. Kaufman, *Prestige Classes in a New York Rural Community*, Memoir 260, Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, Ithaca, New York, 1944, 3-46; Harold F. Kaufman, "Members of a Rural Community as Judges of Prestige Rank," *Sociometry*, IX, 71-85, Fe. 1946. Detailed procedures used are described in a forthcoming monograph.

^b Class I is omitted here since only four families came from this stratum.

or is engaged as a salaried executive in an enterprise owned by Class I families. (See Table III) Family income may be supplemented by income from a farm or two, securities, perhaps some rental houses.⁷ Most, but seldom all, family income is spent on daily living. Security rather than wealth appears to be the economic goal. They were successful enough in the depression years to avoid all types of direct public assistance. All families had commercial and savings accounts in the local banks. In a crisis bank credit is available and used when necessary. Another important point is that lawyers are used extensively in normal business activities rather than in a crisis only.

Class II focuses its attention upon the aggressive manipulation of economic and

TABLE II. ECOLOGICAL AREA AND CLASS FOR FAMILIES RESIDING IN ELMTOWN

Ecological Area ¹	Class			
	I+II	III	IV	V
"The 400".....	15	26	3	0
"Old Residential".....	13	57	26	0
"The East End".....		2	12	4
"Down by the Mill".....	6	46	21	
"The Mill Addition".....	7	54	21	
"Down by the Canal".....	7	58	75	
"North of the Tracks".....	3	21	22	
"Below the Canal".....	0	5	48	
Total.....	28 ²	108	225	191

$$\chi^2 = 283.6807, \quad P < .01 \\ C = .59 \quad \bar{C} = .73^4$$

¹ Ecological areas are arranged in order of prestige value.

² Cases in Class I and II are not included in the chi square analysis or the coefficient of contingency.

³ These cells were combined in the chi square analysis.

⁴ C = Coefficient of Contingency. \bar{C} = coefficient of contingency corrected for broad grouping by formula given in Thomas C. McCormick, *Elementary Social Statistics*, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1941, p. 207.

political processes; consequently, its members are hyperactive in the power wielding

⁵ Annual family incomes ranged between \$3,000 and \$10,000, with the mode at \$4,500 and the mean at \$4,650. These are 1941 figures.

associations, such as Chamber of Commerce, Rotary, Masons, country club, and the major political parties. The women are as active as the men within their own sphere. A con-

TABLE III. OCCUPATIONAL GROUP OF FATHER BY CLASS

Occupational Group	I+II ¹	III	IV	V	Total
Professionals and Proprietors.....	21	41	23	8	100 ²
Farm Owners.....	9	26	2	—	
Clerical.....	3	18	8	—	44
Sales.....	2	10	6	2	
Skilled Craftsmen.....	37	54	31		185
Semi-skilled Machine Operators.....		2	44	17	
Farm Tenants.....	20	54	9	83	
Services.....	3	25	16		
Unskilled.....	1	96	147	288	
Total.....	158	312	230	700	

$$\chi^2 = 293.0819 \quad P < .01 \\ C = .55 \quad \bar{C} = .68$$

¹ Classes I and II are not included in the chi square analysis.

² Cells combined in chi square analysis.

siderable proportion of the working day of many men and women is donated to community affairs without the donors receiving or expecting any direct, tangible compensation for their efforts other than the pleasure derived from the manipulation of human relationships in a controversial situation. As the outwardly prominent prestige bearers of community leadership, they are generally respected by the bulk of the population who look to them for community betterment. Few people realize these overt community leaders may be controlled, and often are, from behind the scenes by Class I persons.

All of these families paid personal property taxes, 90 per cent owned real estate, and 80 per cent owned the home they lived in. The town dwellers lived in the two highest ranking residential areas (Table II), with 54 per cent in the "400" and 46 per cent in the "Old Residential" area. The homes, while not as large as those of Class I, are interspersed in the same areas. They are

well kept, and furnished nicely. An automobile is a necessity and custom decrees it shall be a new one, preferably large, but not necessarily so; and in excellent repair.

Class II wives are homemakers and the family's social secretary.⁸ Their homes are well-managed and run with the help of one general servant or with hourly services of a cleaning woman. Although their homes are a source of pride, an ambitious wife must not allow her home interests to out-weigh her community activities. Their community activities generally are arranged to take place in the afternoons; only occasionally is the wife expected to be out in the evening, since this is the time the husband will be free from his occupational restrictions. However, demands on the husband's evenings are so numerous, he is home only a few nights a week. Thus, the home tends to be a service station and a place of relaxation on weekends.

Approximately four out of five families come from pioneer American stock. The remainder trace their origins directly to Norwegian, German, and Irish elements who have lived in the area for three generations; no ethnic groups are represented.

Marriage occurs in the middle twenties between persons of approximately the same educational and economic backgrounds. Since Class II is upwardly mobile, marriages with Class I persons are preferred by II's but not by I's. Marriages between equals are approved, those between a II and a III are not, but they are tolerated when they occur. Few marriages occur below this level. Marriage is for life, not until divorce breaks it. Children are expected and, in most cases, desired and planned; thus, families are small in size.⁹ The mother is confined in a hospital in a distant city and cared for by a specialist; the local hospital is seldom used. Parents strive to rear their children properly and to give them advantages they may not have had themselves. The children expect their parents to assist them in reaching and con-

solidating a desirable future. The boys are headed for business or a profession. The girls are steered toward a desirable marriage after an education has been secured.

Church affiliation and active participation in religious affairs are emphasized. Class II is relied upon by the ministers for lay leadership in church activities. Religious goals are achieved through church work, such as dinners, welfare drives, Sunday School, missionary societies, and young people's affairs, instead of through large pecuniary pledges as is the rule in Class I.

The adults of Class II are the most highly educated persons in the community (Table V). Education is viewed as a requisite to success in business, and indispensable in the professions. The college educated males are concentrated in the large professions, only a few are in business. The non-college men are all in business enterprises of one kind or another. Those who achieved success without a college education admit the lack of it, often in an indirect way; and indicate, none too subtly, they believe they could have gone much farther if they had been better educated. Both college and non-college parents emphasize to their children the need for a college education.

Class II families do not have the time or the money to travel extensively, but they usually make a few trips each year to a neighboring city to shop, to attend the theater or an inter-collegiate football game. Their vacations are spent in automobile trips to various parts of the country or in a rented cabin at one of the northern lakes. The younger children go to summer camp for a few weeks, but the older boys work in the fields or in the town's stores. The adults make only limited use of public recreational facilities, such as parks and playgrounds, as they have access to the country club.¹⁰ Almost every Saturday night, there are get-togethers in the homes where the numerous cliques of husbands and wives drink, eat, play cards, talk freely, and relax from the strains of daily life.

⁸ Only 1 wife out of 31 was gainfully employed.

⁹ The mean was 2.3 per family; the range from one to four.

¹⁰ Eighty-five per cent belonged.

Class III

Class III adults have strong feelings about their position in the social structure. Above them they see the Is, who they realize are much higher in prestige because of their wealth, lineage, and way of life. Likewise, they know the IIs occupy a position superior to their own, but a position that rests on different bases: dignified occupations, more income, higher education, and leadership in the prestige-giving activities—traits they too possess, but not in such generous amounts. The cavalier treatment they receive from IIs in community activities and the fact that IIs identify themselves psychologically with Class I, and many times act as its agents in community enterprises builds resentment among IIIs toward the IIs rather than the Is. IIIs look down upon IVs as "the common man," but they do not condemn or scorn them as many IIIs trace their immediate background to this stratum. Proportionately, there probably has been more upward mobility in this stratum than any other in Elmtown. Mills found evidences of the same thing in Central City.¹¹

Income is derived from profits, fees, and salaries earned by both the father and the mother.¹² The men largely own and operate small retail businesses, own medium sized farms, operate as large tenants,¹³ or pursue the lesser professions. Many are highly skilled craftsmen, a considerable number are foremen. Others are clerks in the mill offices, the banks, and other businesses. One-sixth of the wives were gainfully employed outside the home largely as small professionals, some operated small businesses, such as corner groceries, tobacco, and dress shops.

All families maintained commercial ac-

counts and three out of four had savings accounts. Bank credit was available to those who had savings accounts, insurance policies, and owned real property. One-fifth however, did not have bank credit and resorted to the local small loans broker to tide them over a crisis. Class III families invest their small savings in real estate, insurance, or speculative enterprises, only to lose much of it to financial sharpers. Lawyers are not consulted as guides to business activities before action is taken, but afterwards when difficulty arises.

IIIs strive to live in the better residential areas and, in large part, they succeed (Table II). Sixty-one per cent of the homes are owned.¹⁴ Class III families have sufficient income for the conveniences and comforts of life, possibly part-time help, money for a two weeks' vacation each year, popular magazine subscriptions, automobiles, and other externals of a successful standard of living that may be typified as comfort without luxury. Home furnishings tend to be uniform in quality, similar in price, and standardized as to the kind of articles in a room, one might almost say the way they are arranged.

Descendents of the ethnic groups that settled in Elmtown a half century and more ago are represented disproportionately in this stratum.¹⁵ Since ethnic background is connected directly with religious affiliations in most families, the Catholic and Lutheran churches claim large blocks of Class III people. The distribution of religious affiliation in the several classes is shown in Table IV.

Church activities, such as guilds, study groups, missionary societies, and welfare organizations are kept alive, in large measure, by Class III women. Church attendance and church work are major functions in their

¹¹ C. Wright Mills, "The Middle Classes in Middle-Sized Cities," *American Sociological Review*, 11:520-529, O. 1946.

¹² Family income ranged from \$2,000 to \$4,000 in 1941 with the mode at \$2,800-\$2,899, and a mean of \$2,867.

¹³ A medium sized farm owner usually operates his own farm. In size it ranges from 150 to 300 acres. A large tenant is one who operates 300 or more acres.

¹⁴ Home ownership is almost universal among the small business and professionals, but only 43 per cent of the farm families were owners, and one-third of the foremen, salesmen, and service workers owned their homes.

¹⁵ 30 per cent were of Norwegian descent, 20 per cent Irish, and 10 per cent German. No "Poles," however, had achieved a Class III station. The remaining 40 per cent traced their descent to American stock.

TABLE IV. RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION BY CLASS

Religious Affiliation	Class				
	I+II	III	IV	V	Total
Federated ¹	20	26	16	1	63
Methodist.....	5	31	45	12	93
Lutheran.....	3	45	80	32	160
Catholic.....	3	35	57	48	143
Baptist; others ²	3	12	72	71	158
No Affiliation..	1	9	42	66	118
Total.....	35	158	312	230	735

$$\chi^2 = 244.4319 \quad P < .01 \quad C = .50 \quad \bar{C} = .58$$

¹ Created by the official merger of the Presbyterian and Congregational groups, and the unofficial affiliation of local Episcopalians.

² Free Methodist, Pentecostal, Church of God, Christ Scientist, Pilgrim Holiness.

lives. While the women are twice as likely to be avid church workers as men, there is a significantly higher average attendance at church services among both men and women than in any other class.¹⁶ Regular church attendance appears to confer a kind of moral respectability peculiar to Class III. These people along with the IIs run the activities of the socially desirable churches—Federated, Methodist, Lutheran, Catholic, and Baptist.

Marriage occurs a year younger than in Class II and the women give birth to their first child 18 months earlier in life than Class II. Class III women also have more children than Class II women;¹⁷ practically all babies are delivered in the local hospital. Strict sexual fidelity is required of the wives, but the husbands are known, on occasion, "to play around with other women." The wives

¹⁶ Each minister rated the church activity of each family. These ratings were analyzed by chi square for significance of difference and association. For father's church activity with a 20 cell table and 18 degrees of freedom $\chi^2 = 239$; the coefficient of contingency for the raw scores was .49; when corrected for broad groupings it was .55. The contingency table for the mother's activity had 20 cells and 18 degrees of freedom, $\chi^2 = 350$; the coefficient of contingency, uncorrected was .57, corrected .66.

¹⁷ The mean size of Class III families was 3.6; standard deviation 1.9.

do not "run around with other men" to any appreciable extent, and they bitterly condemn a woman who does. Class III is not as well educated as the higher classes; moreover, there is a distinct difference in the amount of education received by the men and women. (See Table V).

TABLE V. EDUCATIONAL LEVEL ATTAINED BY EACH PARENT BY CLASS

Education Completed	Class				
	I+II	III	IV	V	Total
<i>A. Fathers</i>					
College ¹	17	11	4	0	87
High School....	11	26	17	1	66
9-11 Grades....	2	26	32	6	582
8th Grade.....	5	74	158	67	
5-7 Grades....	—	13	61	80	
Less than 5th Grade.....	—	8	40	76	
Total.....	35	158	312	230	735
$\chi^2 = 244.2504 \quad P < .01 \quad C = .50 \quad \bar{C} = .64$					
<i>B. Mothers</i>					
College ¹	18	63	10	—	166
High School....	10 ²	33	28	4	101
9-11 Grades....	5	55	39	2	
8th Grade.....	2	5	174	70	
5-7 Grades....	—	1	42	99	468
Less than 5th Grade.....	—	1	19	55	
Total.....	35	158	312	230	735
$\chi^2 = 444.6439 \quad P < .01 \quad C = .62 \quad \bar{C} = .84$					

¹ Includes all formal training beyond high school, such as college, university, professional, and vocational courses. It ranged from 6 months to 8 years in length.

² Figures combined for chi square analysis.

It has often been observed that Americans are joiners; this is particularly true in Class III where membership in many associations, implemented by active participation, confers high prestige within the class, to be elected to an office, or to be on a committee adds a few additional cubits. The most coveted memberships are the country club and Rotary for most of their members come from

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Classes I and II.¹⁸ Although IIIs could not "make the grade" to these relatively exclusive organizations in appreciable numbers, a few did, thus preserving the traditional belief that "one can go anywhere if he only has the stuff in him."

Although political activity is more widespread than in any other stratum, and from two-thirds to three-fourths of the several county offices are staffed by persons either elected or appointed from this class, these facts do not lead to the conclusion that Class III is politically powerful. On the contrary, it looks to Classes I and II for leadership. Many politically active IIIs resent their subordinate positions in the political system in view of the work they do, but their control is limited by all policy-making offices being in the hands of the higher classes.

Class III advertises its activities in the "Society" column of the local paper. When Mrs. John P. Doe gives a party or chairmans an activity, she is expected to "write a piece" for the paper which tells when and where the party occurred, who was there, the kind of entertainment offered, the refreshments served, and a detailed description of the decorations. If she does not, her friends are likely to inquire why she did not have a "piece in the paper." Afternoon affairs are advertised in this manner and, in most cases, mixed Saturday evening parties attended by cliques. Trips out of town for almost any reason are mentioned in the paper. IIIs might be said to be seekers after respectable personal publicity of any kind—to have one's name in the paper adds to one's prestige. Class I persons, on the other hand, avoid personal publicity; IIs do not seek it—as a rule, they try to keep from being mentioned too frequently in the local press.

Class IV

Class IV persons are aware of the inferior position they occupy in the prestige hier-

¹⁸ 15 per cent of the country club's membership and 10 per cent of Rotary came from Class III families. However, 84 per cent of the Lion's Club membership was drawn from the III fathers. The picture was similar for the exclusive women's organizations.

archy, and they resent the attitudes most persons in the higher classes exhibit toward them. They discriminate sharply between "people like us" and the "socially ambitious" IIIs who they believe "put on airs" they do not rightfully deserve. Conversely, they are convinced Vs are inferior to themselves because they live in hovels and shacks, are dirty, immoral, and do not "try to get ahead." Consequently, a self-respecting IV avoids contact with Vs whenever possible. On the whole, Class IV people consider themselves to be "the backbone of the community." The higher ranking classes do not expect community leadership from Class IV, but they do expect them to work, produce, pay taxes, vote right, pay their bills, and buy the things they need locally while the higher classes provide the direction and reap the profits from their efforts.

Class IV members are employees who work for wages day after day on the farms, in the mines, the mills, and the shops of Elmtown.¹⁹ Although class folkways indicated the family should be supported by the father, 30 per cent of the mothers were gainfully employed outside the home either as supplementary or chief breadwinner in occupations that carry little prestige and low hourly or weekly wages.²⁰ Their income was large enough to provide the necessities of life, a few comforts, but few, if any, luxuries. Family income was spent as it was earned; little was left over for "a rainy day." Family possessions were limited to a few clothes, household goods, and a car. However, 25 per cent did not own an automobile, and only 35 per cent either owned or were buying a home.²¹ Thirty-five per cent had small

¹⁹ The chances were 12.5 to 1 against a Class IV father owning a business. When he did, it was a very small one, as defined by Dun and Bradstreet's *Registry* for Elmtown, May, 1941. A very small business is therein defined as one with a value between \$500 to \$2,000.

²⁰ Annual family incomes ranged from \$800 to \$2,700, with the mode at \$1,500 to \$1,599 and a mean of \$1,541.

²¹ The point should be made here that these families were in the prime of life; the mean age of the father was 45.5 years and the mother 42.1 years. These families had all been established 15 years or more.

commercial bank accounts and 17 per cent had savings accounts. The commercial bank accounts were limited largely to the farmers, little business men, and the craft and skilled workers. Laborers and service workers had commercial accounts in but 11 per cent of the cases. Bank credit was available to approximately two families out of five. The local small loans broker acted as the credit agency for families who did not have bank credit.

Although many families were on relief during the worst years of the depression in the 1930's, specific data were not available in the county and it was not considered advisable to ask the families directly about their relief experiences. The Supervisor of the poor, between January 1937 through December 1941, gave township relief to 8 per cent of the families for periods varying from one month to three years. None of these cases involved "total relief." On the contrary, the relief given acted as a subsidy to a family in dire need that could not get help elsewhere. No family in the higher classes found it necessary to "go on relief."

All ethnic elements are found in Class IV. In Elmtown proper their homes are found in all residential areas, as Table II shows, but they are largely excluded from the best residential area by economic factors, and they avoid the area "Below the Canal" as being beyond the pale of respectability.

The family pattern is sharply different from that found in the higher classes. Marriage between class equals is ¹⁶ the rule, although a small minority marry one class up or down. Males marry in their very early twenties and females in the late teens. Children normally are born from 9 to 18 months after marriage,²² and more are born per family than in Class III.²³ Also, the family is broken by divorce, desertion, or death twice as often as in III.

²² 55 per cent of Class IV mothers gave birth to their first child before they were 20 years of age, whereas only 19 per cent of the Class III mothers were in this category.

²³ The mean number was 4.3 per family; range 1-10, standard deviation 2.2.

The mother does her own housework with the aid of the children even though she may be gainfully employed part or full-time. There is no help except in an emergency, such as childbirth or illness; even then, it is dispensed with as soon as possible. The wife and mother's role in the community is encompassed by domestic duties. She is judged by the way she keeps her house, dresses her children, and manages the family budget. The community does not expect these women to join the Women's Club or other social organizations and they are discriminated against if they have ambitions along this line. The men are judged by how well they provide and by their moral actions, not by their business or organizational contacts.

Formal educational experience is limited almost exclusively to elementary and high schools. The Class IV adult might be characterized as literate, but not educated. (See Table V).

Many families claimed they had neither time nor money to support the churches, and one-third indicated hostility toward religion for one reason or another. Fourteen per cent had no affiliation with a local church, and out of those who did, two-thirds of the fathers and one-half of the mothers did not attend church services. These people claimed to be church members, but by the practical test of whether they actually participated in church activities, they were not.²⁴ This class may be as devout as the higher classes, but its members do not work on church boards, committees, and societies. When they do, especially in the high prestige churches, they are most likely to be found in menial positions. For instance, the chances are about 20 to 1 that an active Class IV woman in the Methodist Church, let us say, will be found in the kitchen at a church dinner rather than on the planning committee for the affair.

²⁴ Twenty-four per cent of fathers and 19 per cent of the mothers were completely unknown to the ministers of the churches with which they claimed they were affiliated.

Leisure is limited for both men and women to the hours outside the daily, weekly, and yearly work routines. Approximately, three leisure hours out of four are spent at home listening to the radio, looking over the local paper, "working around the place," "fixing things up," and, for the men especially, cleaning and repairing the car. There is very little reading of magazines, books, or newspapers. Outside the home, recreation occurs in public or semi-public places. The most popular spot, visited by the average family once a week, is the motion picture theater. Visiting friends and relatives is also a very popular pastime. People meet informally on the street and stop to visit when the weather permits; if it does not, they congregate in the grocery, ten cent, and hardware stores. On a warm Saturday evening, Main Street swarms with people from the two lower classes who visit along the sidewalks and curbs. The family does not travel for travel's sake, as is often the case in the higher classes. An extended trip may be made for a definite purpose, such as visiting a relative, but these trips are not viewed as pleasures in themselves, but a means to renew family ties.

Intimate association in cliques is limited almost exclusively to intra-class relationships as III's avoid clique ties with IV's, and IV's, in turn, avoid V's. Clique activities are highly informal and consist of visiting back and forth between couples in the evening, Sundays, and holidays rather than planned parties and dinners with drinks, games, and polite conversation as their central focus. Clique relations are more definitely on an age and sex basis, and more leisure time is spent by adults with their own sex in various clique activities than in the higher classes.

Periodically, attention is focused very briefly on some person who has committed a crime. This occurs more frequently in Class IV than in III, for 13.8 per cent of the fathers had been convicted in local courts of offenses between 1934 and 1941, but only 4.4 per cent of the Class III fathers. None of the mothers in either class had been accused or convicted of an offense.

Class V

Class V occupies the lowest stations in the social structure. Its members are looked upon by the higher ranking classes as the "scum of the city." It is believed nothing beyond charity can be done for them, and only a minimum is justified since they show little or no inclination to help themselves. Class V persons realize they are "on the bottom" and they know they are discriminated against by the higher classes, but most of them do not have enough insight to realize why. Class V persons give the impression of being resigned to life in a community that despises them for their disregard of morals, lack of "success" goals, and dire poverty.

Family support comes from many sources. The father is the chief breadwinner in some three families out of five, but their earnings are meager.²⁵ Fifty-five per cent of the mothers were gainfully employed outside the home part or full-time as waitresses, dishwashers, cooks, washwomen, janitresses, cleaning women, and general unskilled domestic workers. Income from wages provides the families with just enough to obtain the meagerest necessities of life, supplemented by private charity and public relief.²⁶ Between 1937 and 1941, the private earnings of 52.6 per cent were supplemented by township relief at least one-fourth of each year.²⁷ Bank accounts and credit are non-existent and even the small loans broker has learned, as he said, "through experience to be careful with that class. Before I loan one of them a cent, I investigate carefully and make sure they own what they put up for security."

²⁵ Ninety-two per cent were unskilled and semi-skilled laborers or machine operators; none was a farm owner, eight were farm tenants, two were salesmen; and eight operated very small businesses, such as hauling coal from local mines, ash and trash hauling, repair and sales of old cars.

²⁶ Annual family income ranged from a low near \$500 to a high of about \$1,500. The modal income fell in the \$800 to \$899 bracket, with the mean at \$842.

²⁷ This figure does not take into consideration federal subsidies, such as W.P.A. and N.Y.A. that prevailed in that period. Neither does it include private charity in its many forms.

All population elements (American, German, Norwegian, Irish, and "Polish") are represented, but three families out of five (58 per cent) traced their ancestry to old American stock that came to Elmtown before the Civil War. In spite of popular belief, "the Irish element" has contributed less than 9 per cent to the ranks of Class V. The "Poles" are found here twice as frequently as would be expected by chance as measured by chi square; the Germans and Norwegians only one-third as frequently as we could expect if chance factors alone were operating.²⁸ Many families have lived in Elmtown as long as the "leading families." In their long history, they have achieved notorious histories. The unsavory reputation of an ancestor is remembered and often used as an explanation for present delinquency.²⁹

Class V families are excluded from the two leading residential areas (Table II). They are found in the others, with large concentrations "north of the tracks" and "below the canal." Ethnic background acts as a selective factor within these areas. "Below the Canal" and "The Mill Addition" are populated almost exclusively by old American stock. "Down by the Mill" is "Irish heaven," whereas "North of the Tracks" is divided into "Norwegian" and "Polish" areas.

The family residence, a box-like structure of two or three rooms, is rented in four cases out of five (81 per cent). The few that are owned have either been inherited or built along the canal and in the tannery flats by their present owners. Although it is popularly believed these people buy cars rather than homes, only 57 per cent owned an automobile.³⁰

²⁸ A chi square of 43.9513 was found with 9 degrees of freedom between ethnic antecedents and class. This is significant at the .01 level.

²⁹ The doctrine of "blood" used to explain the rise to eminence of Class I is used in the same way to justify the derogation of Class V. Such remarks as the following were made about these notorious families or some member of them, "blood will out," "you can't expect anything else from such people," "his great-grandfather was hung for killing a neighbor in cold blood!"

³⁰ 80 per cent were more than seven years old and only 5 per cent were under two years of age.

The family pattern differs sharply from that found in the other classes. Marriages are limited almost exclusively to class equals. For instance, in 61 out of 65 marriages where the class positions of the families were traced both partners were Class V (93.7 per cent); the other four involved the marriage of Class V with Class IV persons. Marriage takes place in the middle teens for the girls, and in the very early twenties for the boys. In the present adult generation, 78 per cent of the mothers reported they had given birth to their first child before they were 20 years of age. Another trait that marks the family complex is the number of children produced by these women.³¹ There is little prenatal or postnatal care of either mother or child. The child is delivered generally at home, usually by a local doctor, the county nurse, or midwife, but in the late 1930's, some expectant mothers entered the local hospital. Hospital deliveries, however, are very new to Class V and not widely diffused.

Death, desertion, separation, or divorce has broken more than half the families (56 per cent). The burden of child care, as well as support, falls on the mother more often than on the father when the family is broken. The husband-wife relationship is more or less an unstable one even though the marriage may be sanctioned either by law or conventional understandings between the partners. Disagreements leading to quarrels and vicious fights followed by desertion on the part of either the man or the woman is not unusual. There are few compulsive factors, such as neighborhood solidarity, religious teachings, or ethical considerations operating to maintain a stable marital relationship.

Formal educational experience is limited almost exclusively to the elementary school. (See Table V). It is easy to calculate that a generation ago the odds against a V boy finishing high school were 230 to 1; for the girls they were 57 to 1. It may seem surprising, but they have not improved.³²

³¹ The mean was 6.6 per mother, with a range from 1 to 13 and a standard deviation of 3.1.

³² In 1941-1942, there were 6 freshmen and 2 sophomore boys, and 18 girls, 6 were juniors, and 3 were seniors, from Class V in the Elmtown High

Religious ties are either very tenous or non-existent. Only 71.3 per cent of the families claimed any religious connections, and many of these were "in spirit" rather than in fact. More than 9 families out of 10 have no functional connections with any church.

Class V persons are isolated from organized community activities. A few men claimed membership in veterans' organizations, but they neither paid their dues nor attended meetings. Those who worked in the mill belonged to the union, the others did not belong to unions as the other shops were open; besides most of the men followed lines of work the unions had not organized.

Time has little value in the daily routine beyond the demands of the job. Since they do not participate in organized community affairs, hours off the job and during the periods of unemployment or lay-off are spent the way the person chooses without too much interference from neighbors. Their extensive leisure is spent in loafing around the neighborhood, in the downtown district, along the river, and at home. Intimate associations are limited in large measure within the class. Social life consists of informal visits between neighbors, gossip, petty gambling, visits to the cheaper theaters, "going to town," drinking in the home or public taverns, with now and again a fist fight. Since the family is organized loosely, the members usually go their own way in search of amusement or

pleasure. The cliques are severely age and sex graded. Men associate with men and women with women, except in their ubiquitous sex activities.

The police, sheriff, prosecuting attorney and judge know these families from frequent contact through the years, whereas the ministers and school officials may be only slightly acquainted with them. Between 1934 and 1941, 8 per cent of the mothers and 46 per cent of the fathers had been convicted once or more in the local courts. Public drinking, disorderly conduct, family neglect, and sex offenses were the most frequent charges. Some were chronic offenders who were hauled into court a few weeks after they had either worked out a fine or served their previous sentence; others were single offenders. The group as a whole average 4.1 convictions each. The misdeeds of these people are publicized on the front page of the local paper and by word of mouth to such an extent that many people expect nothing better from them.

CONCLUSION

On the basis of the data presented, certain tentative conclusions appear to be warranted. First, each of the five strata, as delimited by the procedures used, has a distinct subculture. Second, identification with a given class or stratum is dependent upon the possession of a constellation of appropriate traits. Third, the members of each class participate in community activities in significantly different ways from the members of other classes.

School. Two of the three senior girls graduated in June, 1942.

CRITERIA OF SOCIAL STATUS AS DERIVED FROM MARRIAGE ANNOUNCEMENTS IN THE NEW YORK TIMES*

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THE PURPOSE of this study was to determine, from the biographical material contained in socially important marriage announcements, what characteristics are common to the group assumed to be at the top of the social system in New York City, and what, if any, are the integrating standards of the group.

The information used was taken from a total of 413 marriage announcements featured by the social editors of *The New York Times* in lead articles. The period of time covered was 1932-1942, and the material was limited to Sundays in June of these years.

Marriage announcements have come to follow a stereotyped form and consistently include certain information regarding the bride, the groom and their families. In addition to descriptions of the costumes of the bridal party and of the marriage ceremony, the announcement, as a rule, contains a brief summary of the background of the bride and groom and facts concerning their families, notably, residence, and social and occupational distinction of the families.

The wedding announcement, like the wedding itself, spotlights the bride primarily, and secondarily the groom and the two families. It is the occasion when the families concerned appear before the public in their most favorable aspect. The wedding ceremony in America has come to be the most important of family occasions; christenings, confirmations and reunions are rarely occasions of public celebration. A wedding, with all the attendant festivities, is an important manifestation of the social position of the families involved.

In attempting to make generalizations concerning the standards of a socially superior

group, it is assumed that there is social stratification in New York City; that is, that individuals are ranked as superior or inferior to one another in certain socially important respects.¹

We assume, also, that the treatment accorded individuals as superior or inferior is not purely fortuitous but the interpretation in action of a more or less integrated set of standards.

The group represented in the announcements in this study is assumed to occupy a superior position in the New York social system. This assumption is based primarily upon the fact that half of the individuals whose announcements are included in this study are listed in the *New York Social Register*.²

Further evidence is the fact that the announcements are listed in the index of news contents as "Society." Obviously the information appearing in these pages must have "news value." However, the social editors of *The New York Times* are reluctant to divulge any information regarding the system of selecting announcements.³

* Talcott Parsons, "An Analytical Approach to the Theory of Social Stratification," *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. XLV, No. 6, p. 841.

1. W. Lloyd Warner and Paul S. Lunt, "The Social Life of a Modern Community," p. 82, New Haven, 1941. "By class is meant two or more orders of people who are believed to be, and are accordingly ranked by the members of the community, in socially superior and inferior positions."

2. The *New York Social Register* is edited by a committee of social arbiters in the city. It is issued once a year and contains such information as names of members of families, residences, clubs and maiden names. It is the generally recognized statement of an upper social group.

3. Two letters of inquiry regarding selection of announcements were ignored. Finally, through a personal contact the writer succeeded in obtaining the following statement:

Question: "The question has arisen as to whether

* This paper was presented at the meeting of the Eastern Sociological Society, May, 1946.

Assuming that the group dealt with is at or near the top of the social hierarchy, an attempt has been made to interpret the characteristics which they themselves consider distinctive of social superiority in the light of Parsons' classification of bases of differential evaluation.*

THE WEDDING CEREMONY

A large portion of the space in the wedding announcement is devoted to descriptions of the ceremony and costumes.

The ceremony as a social and family affair is stressed by mention of the participation of various members of the family in the ceremony. When parents are separated, it is customary for both to attend. Brothers, sisters, and cousins are frequently attendants. The social group of which the family is a part are present as guests, and the obligation of giving gifts makes this a relatively close relationship. The most intimate friends of the bridal couple are attendants. The choice of attendants is no doubt indicative of the social group to which the family belongs, and although the names are always included in the article, it is impossible for persons out-

side the group to judge of their social position.

Much of the outward show of the wedding is not a prerogative of an hereditary aristocracy, but is available for any family with sufficient wealth. Bridal costumes, decorations and the reception may all be purchased, and are symbols of wealth rather than of family position. The lack of distinguishing costumes reserved for a privileged group is further emphasized by the similarity of costumes in this group to costumes described in weddings of all groups in papers throughout the country.

Since the crux of the entire wedding is the uniting of the members of two families through a formal ceremony, the suitability of the bridal couple must be of concern. When families and the larger groups of which they are a part are sufficiently integrated to set standards and limits to the marriage choice, they constitute a group approaching a caste.⁵ Membership in such a group is clearly defined and social intercourse confined within the group.

This evidently is not the case in New York City. There is no definite and clear-cut group at the top of the social hierarchy. The nearest approach to a definition of an aristocracy is *The Social Register*. Of the 413 marriages dealt with here, only 75 were couples both of whom were included in *The Social Register*. In more than twice as many cases neither bride nor groom was in *The Social Register*. It seems, therefore, that the group which appears in the lead articles in *The New York Times* social page is much larger than that in *The Social Register* although to the reader of the announcements there is no perceptible difference between the attributes of *The Social Register* couple and the non *Social Register* couple. That the line of demarcation between the formally sanc-

wedding announcements on the social pages are selected largely on the basis of family prestige or on the basis of personal fame of the individual (such as an outstanding baseball player)."

Answer: "Wedding and engagement announcements which appear in the Society pages of *The New York Times* are used on the basis of merit and news interest to the general public. They are not selected merely on the basis of family prestige or personal fame."

* Talcott Parsons, *op. cit.*, p. 848. "The following is a classification of bases of differential valuation which, though by no means final and exhaustive, has been found to be relatively concrete and useful. Membership in a kinship unit, personal qualities, achievements, possessions, authority, power."

W. Lloyd Warner and Paul S. Lunt, *op. cit.*, pp. 83-84. "If a man's education, occupation, wealth, income, family, intimate friends, clubs and fraternities, as well as his manners, speech, and general outward behavior were known, it was not difficult for his fellow citizens to give a fairly exact estimate of his status. If only his social participation in family, clique, and association were known, he could be placed to the satisfaction of all better informants by the process of identifying his social place with that of the others who were like him."

⁵ W. Lloyd Warner and Paul S. Lunt, *op. cit.*, p. 92. "If the society is organized on the principle of caste, the males and females of two uniting families must be members of the same caste; they express by the marriage their social equivalence and help maintain the continuing location of their families' place. All the values and sanctions of a caste help to enforce such equivalent marriages."

tioned group and a large peripheral group is indefinite is further indicated by the large proportion of "mixed marriages" (one person from *The Social Register* and the other not), and by the frequent out-of-town marriages.

TABLE 1. LISTING OF MARRIED COUPLES AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP TO NEW YORK *Social Register*

	Number	Percentage
Both members of Married Couple in <i>Social Register</i>	75	18.16
Woman in <i>Social Register</i> , man a New Yorker but not in <i>Social Register</i>	44	10.65
Man in <i>Social Register</i> , woman a New Yorker but not in <i>Social Register</i>	32	7.75
Both New Yorkers but neither in <i>Social Register</i>	159	38.50
One member from outside New York; other in New York <i>Social Register</i>	37	8.96
One member from outside New York; other from New York but not in <i>Social Register</i>	48	11.62
Both members of Married Couple from outside New York.....	6	1.45
Not known.....	12	2.91
	413	100.00

CHURCH OF MARRIAGE

The information in the wedding announcements falls into several distinct categories, with emphasis upon the ceremony itself. The information is here placed under the following headings: church of marriage, important members of the family, occupation of fathers of bride and groom, family residences, preparatory schools, colleges, and clubs of bride and groom and their occupations.

The sanction of the church is an important part of the marriage ceremony for this particular group. Among 413 marriages, only 11 were not performed in a church, and only one was performed by a civil magistrate. Church affiliation, in name at least, appears to be customary.

The particular church to which one belongs seems also to have a social significance. The Episcopal Church was the place of the wedding in 57.63% of this group. Although all the persons married in the church may not be active members, the proportion is con-

spicuously larger than for the general population of the area of greater New York. Only two and one-half per cent of the population of this area was Episcopalian.⁶

In contrast to the large proportion of Episcopalians, no announcement acknowledged marriage in a Jewish synagogue or gave any indication of association with the Jewish faith.

Belonging to a suitable church seems to be somewhat like living in a socially acceptable part of a city or belonging to a distinguished club. Theoretically, anyone may join any church, but, in practice, similar social groups may tend to congregate in the same church, with the possible exception of the Catholic Church. The popularity of several Episcopal churches in central Manhattan

TABLE 2. CHURCHES IN WHICH MARRIAGE TOOK PLACE

Name of Church	Number	Percentage
Episcopal.....	238	57.63
Presbyterian.....	41	9.93
Catholic.....	25	6.05
Congregational.....	21	5.09
Reformed.....	6	1.45
Methodist.....	4	.97
Baptist.....	3	.73
Lutheran.....	2	.48
Unitarian.....	2	.48
Moravian.....	1	.24
Universalist.....	1	.24
Quaker.....	1	.24
Unknown.....	68	16.47
Total.....	413	100.00

suggests the prestige of these churches in this group.

DISTINGUISHED RELATIVES

Since the youth of the bride and groom precludes the possibility in most cases of their having achieved status through their own ability, their title to social distinction is largely based upon the prestige of their families.

The marriage announcement frequently

⁶ *Living Church Annual*, Morehouse-Gorham Co., New York City, 1944. Total Episcopal communicants in Greater New York: 139,376.

refers to the members of the family who have been distinguished socially or occupationally. The particular positions or achievements of the persons were grouped under several general headings, the size of the groups being taken as some indication of the importance attributed to various fields of achievement and distinction.

Although earned wealth of the professional group could not compare with that of the business executives, the presence of professional people in the family is a point of pride. The importance of professions in socially prominent families is re-emphasized in the case of fathers of the married couple and in the case of the groom. The prestige of the ministry is notable as contrasted with the absence of a single distinguished scientist or doctor in this group. The ministers were, in twelve cases out of fourteen, Episcopal rectors.

The phrase, "grandparents were socially prominent" leaves the precise nature of prominence rather indefinite, but to remark upon the fact that grandparents were in New York City and were known socially suggests the recency and impermanency of any aristocracy.

In the absence of any established aristocracy with a long tradition of privilege, there is prestige attached to family association with early American history. Revolutionary War heroes, early settlers, colonial governors, and signers of the Declaration of Independence are mentioned. In the listings of clubs in the New York *Social Register* there is also frequent statement of membership in societies based upon association with colonial history. Although membership in these societies is not the exclusive prerogative of the upper group, they have nevertheless a prestige far greater than more recent patriotic organizations such as the American Legion or the Veterans of Foreign Wars.

OCCUPATIONS OF FATHERS OF MARRIED COUPLES

The complexity of values which underlie the placement of persons in the social scale

is evident in the wide range of occupations of fathers of the young men and women in this group. The first and obvious point is that these men have occupations and take sufficient pride in them to include them in their children's wedding announcements.⁷

TABLE 3. ACHIEVEMENT AND DISTINCTION OF RELATIVES (OTHER THAN PARENTS)

	Num- ber	Per- centage	Per- centage
Social Distinction			
Grandparents socially prominent.....	87	28.62	
Foreign noblemen.....	15	4.93	37.83
Philanthropists.....	13	4.28	
Political Distinction			
Politically prominent.....	37	12.17	16.45
Diplomatic service.....	13	4.28	
Occupational Distinction			
Prominent in business.....	48	15.79	
Clergymen.....	14	4.61	
Professors or teachers.....	5	1.65	29.28
Army and Navy Officers.....	15	4.93	
Artists.....	7	2.30	
Ancestors Eminent in American History			
Revolutionary War Heroes.....	15	4.93	
Early Settlers.....	21	6.91	
Colonial Governors.....	9	2.96	16.45
Signers of Declaration of Independence.....	5	1.65	
Total.....	304	100.00	100.00

This interest in occupation is reemphasized in the mention of occupations of eminent relatives and occupations of the young married man.

Although it is doubtless true that membership in a profession does not in itself place a person in the top social group of New York City, it appears to be an acceptable attribute for this group. The fact that more than half the fathers whose occupations are mentioned are professional men suggests that when this type of occupation is combined with other socially acceptable attri-

⁷ In 147 announcements out of 413 the occupation of at least one father was noted.

butes, an individual may be included in the upper group. These other attributes may be unusual distinction in the particular profession, the possession of wealth from other sources than earned income, family affiliation or personal qualities.

The position of a successful business man or politician implies the possession of authority, power, and frequently of wealth.

TABLE 4. OCCUPATIONS OF FATHERS OF BRIDE AND GROOM

Occupation	Number	Per- centage	Per- centage
Professions			
Doctor.....	17	11.6	
Professor or Teacher.....	17	11.6	
Minister.....	14	9.5	53.1
Lawyer or Judge.....	9	6.1	
Army or Navy Officers.....	21	14.3	
Businessmen			
Industrialist or Manufacturer.....	15	10.2	
Banker or Broker.....	14	9.5	27.9
Merchant.....	8	5.4	
Publisher.....	4	2.7	
In Politics			
Holder of political office...	16	10.8	
Member of diplomatic corps	3	2.0	12.8
Foreign Noblemen.....			
Foreign Noblemen.....	2	1.4	1.4
Miscellaneous.....			
Miscellaneous.....	7	4.8	4.8
Total.....	147	100.0	100.0

The value placed upon positions of authority by the families themselves suggest that this attribute is regarded as fundamental to the family position.⁸

⁸ Talcott Parsons, *op. cit.*, p. 856. "Authority is significant partly as a necessary means of carrying on occupational functions, but in turn the authority exercised is one of the main criteria of the prestige of an occupational status. Authority, especially that of office, is again important as a reward of past achievements, the general structure of the pattern being a progressive rise to greater achievements and greater rewards concomitantly. . . . Thus authority and office become secondary, symbolic criteria of status, because of their traditional association with achievement."

DOUBLE RESIDENCES

Together with the names of the parents of bride and groom are given the addresses of the family residence in New York City and the location of any other residence.

The location of the family residence seems to be regarded as an essential mark of family identification since it always appears in the opening paragraph of the article. No attempt was made to locate residences for this group, but certain broad generalizations stand out: there were no addresses in the Bronx or in Greenwich Village, and most city residences are in the centrally located districts of Manhattan.

The fact that almost anyone may rent any vacant apartment which he can afford makes the location and type of apartment more a symbol of wealth than of membership in a particular social group. The possession of wealth is implied in the type of residence occupied in New York City and in the possession of estates outside the city.

The impermanent and impersonal character of apartments no doubt increases the intangibility of social classes in a city of apartment dwellers. The possession of a family estate or country home lends a permanence and stability to family status, although estates are also to be had at a price. That there is pride in possession of such residences outside the city is indicated, however, in that 134, or 32% of the families in this group claimed second residences.

PERSONAL QUALITIES AND ACHIEVEMENTS OF BRIDE AND GROOM

The consideration of the background and achievements of the married couple as they are listed in the marriage announcements leads to the conclusion that ascribed and achieved status are closely interdependent.

Birth alone cannot explain the achievements of the young men or women in this group. But the standards set by the kinship group, the educational background afforded, and the whole social background provide a part of the ascribed pattern which the young man or "woman must live up to."⁹

⁹ Talcott Parsons, *op. cit.*, p. 855. "The essence of the matter is that a combination of elements other

The educational background of these young people follows a definite pattern. Attendance at a private school is a conspicuous attribute of both men and women. More than half the women and a fifth of the men identified themselves with specific private preparatory schools. The great number of different preparatory schools for both boys and girls suggests that there may be variation in social and academic status of such institutions; however, from the limited information available here it would be impossible to rate any as superior or inferior in social desirability. The large number of

completion of a preparatory school course, the family social and financial backing is ordinarily necessary.

College for the men in the group is a more frequently mentioned attribute than prepara-

TABLE 6. PREPARATORY SCHOOLS ATTENDED BY THE GROOM

School Attended	Number	Percentage
Boys' miscellaneous	40	47.0
St. Paul's	10	11.8
Groton	8	9.4
Hotchkiss	6	7.1
Andover	6	7.1
Taft	5	5.9
Pomfret	4	4.7
Exeter	4	4.7
Boys' foreign	2	2.3
Total	85	100.0

TABLE 5. PREPARATORY SCHOOLS ATTENDED BY THE BRIDE

School Attended	Number	Percentage
Girls' miscellaneous	129	60.6
Girls' foreign	18	8.5
Brearley	10	4.7
Miss Porter's	9	4.2
Miss Master's	8	3.8
Rosemary	8	3.8
Fermata	7	3.3
Miss Walker's	5	2.4
Foxcroft	6	2.8
Miss Hewitt's	5	2.4
Milton Academy	4	1.9
Miss Madiera's	4	1.9
Total	213	100.0

private schools and the lack of any which seemingly occupy a position of exclusive social prestige further indicates that the group dealt with here is not an integrated social class which maintains educational institutions for the exclusive benefit of its children. For the most part, any family with sufficient money can send its children to some kind of private school. Although elements of personal ability and acceptability make possible for either boys or girls the

than birth becomes part of the ascribed pattern to which the incumbent of the status is socially expected to 'live up.' Though birth is certainly in these circumstances a primary criterion of status, the basic 'virtues' emphasized by the ascribed pattern are equally primary, and, once an individual is eligible by virtue of birth, these are the points at which social pressure to maintain the pattern is applied."

tory school attendance, and the close association of college training with later occupation or profession emphasizes the man's expectation of occupational success. Professional schools of various kinds complete the training of the men of this group. Requisite to academic success is intelligence and ambition of the individual; however, the influence of family in directing and financing, and of early training in preparation all contribute to the completion of occupational training.

The occupations of these young men cover a wide range in respect to income. College and preparatory school instructors, and ministers are a moderate income group; doctors and lawyers do not have the opportunities of amassing large fortunes which come through business enterprise. The group listed as Army and Navy officers may or may not adopt the military profession; the temporary exigencies of war increase the number of young men in this group.

That more than half the young men who announced an occupation were professional people substantiates Parsons' statement that occupations with an important intellectual component rank high.¹⁰ The specific positions of the young men in business are seldom mentioned; more often their em-

¹⁰ Talcott Parsons, *op. cit.*, p. 857.

TABLE 7. COLLEGES AND GRADUATE SCHOOLS ATTENDED BY GROOM

College Attended	Number	Percentage
Miscellaneous.....	94	35.1
Yale.....	41	15.4
Princeton.....	30	11.2
Harvard.....	24	9.0
Law school.....	21	7.9
Technical school.....	17	6.4
Liberal Arts graduate school.....	16	6.0
Medical school.....	13	4.9
Business administration.....	9	3.4
Theological school.....	2	.8
	267	100.0

ployers are named, or merely that they "are associated with manufacturing."

One or two generalizations stand out: professions and business rank high; there are no unskilled or skilled laborers or mechanics; the range of earned income is very broad.

While education for men and women has certain similarities, the objectives and goals of women seem to lie more in the direction of social achievement, including marriage, while men's ambitions are directed toward occupational achievement.

More than their husbands, the young women in this group consider preparatory school attendance an important part of their social background. More than half the women mention private school attendance; only one woman admitted having attended a public school. As was the case with boys' preparatory schools, there was no single girls' school in a dominant position. Among more than seventy-five different schools, only one had ten students from this group. It is quite possible that these schools have different social and academic ratings, but to an outsider these differences are not known.

Although more than a fourth of the women noted college attendance, it appears to be regarded as a less important part of the educational background for women than for men. Only one-fourth as many women mention attending graduate school as do men, and actual practice of a profession is still more uncommon for women. Only ten women among 413 mention being engaged in any

remunerative occupation and those occupations are all rather specialized and possibly the result of personal inclination.¹¹

For women, the assuming of a recognized place in adult society appears to depend upon personal qualities of attractiveness and possibly upon kinship more than upon the winning of an eminent position occupationally. Having made a debut and being a member of the Junior League hold conspicuous places among women's social attributes. Certain qualities of personal charm and education are no doubt requisite for a successful debut and for club membership; nevertheless, the financial and social backing of a family group are also necessary.

Membership in certain clubs seems to be a point of pride and probably represents a

TABLE 8. OCCUPATIONS OF GROOM

Occupation	Number	Percentage
Army or Navy officer.....	26	21.8
Banker or broker.....	17	14.3
"Associated with manufacturing".....	15	12.6
Doctor.....	14	11.8
College instructor.....	12	10.1
Preparatory school teacher.....	11	9.2
Lawyer.....	8	6.7
Minister.....	4	3.4
General business.....	4	3.4
Miscellaneous.....	8	6.7
Total.....	119	100.0

highly formal aspect of class status. The Junior League stands out for women as the important social group. College alumnae associations and college sororities are mentioned in a negligible number of cases. The absence of college sororities is in part explained by the fact that several prominent private women's colleges attended by this group exclude sororities.

For men, college fraternities and alumni associations are important formal social

¹¹ Occupations of married women: assistant in psychiatry, preparatory school teacher, music teacher, social worker, prima ballerina, concert musician, doctor, assistant in United States Department of Employment, teacher of the blind, sculptor.

groups. Membership in New York City sports clubs and clubs of a purely social nature is seemingly considered desirable. To the outsider the status of these clubs cannot be determined. Certain conspicuous omissions do stand out, however. There is no mention

TABLE 9. CLUB MEMBERSHIP OF BRIDE

Club Membership of Bride	Number	Percentage
Junior League.....	65	38.2
Debut.....	61	35.9
Women's Miscellaneous.....	40	23.5
College Alumnae.....	3	1.8
Phi Beta Kappa.....	1	.6
Total.....	170	100.0

of membership in organizations such as the Rotary Club, Kiwanis Exchange, or the American Legion.

CONCLUSIONS

The vagueness and mobility of what we assume to be an upper social group in New York City is emphasized by the difficulty of finding any clear-cut definition of such a group. The group of families represented in outstanding marriage announcements in *The New York Times* is much larger than that formally recognized by the New York *Social Register*. Marriage choices are not confined

TABLE 10. CLUB MEMBERSHIP OF GROOM

Club Membership of Groom	Number	Percentage
Miscellaneous men's clubs.....	41	33.6
College fraternities.....	37	30.3
Men's sport clubs.....	25	20.5
College alumni.....	11	9.0
Men's professional.....	5	4.1
Phi Beta Kappa.....	3	2.5
Total.....	122	100.0

to a small, definite group. Only a fifth of the marriages dealt with here united two persons, both of whom are in *The Social Register*.

The emphasis upon achievement in professions and business by relatives and parents contributes to mobility in this social system. Among the criteria of status which the family considers important are outstanding occupational achievements by all the male members. The social status of parents, which appears to be associated with occupational achievement, is strongly influential in setting standards of personal achievement for the children. Among the attributes valued by this group are graduation from private school, graduation from college and professional school for men, a debut and marriage for a woman, and acceptance by certain formalized social groups.

MORAL JUDGMENT: A STUDY IN RACIAL FRAMES OF REFERENCES*

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Two major hypotheses dominated the design of the study reported here. It was held, first, that moral judgments would be differentially distributed for two similar populations, if the racial frames of reference for the judgments were dissimilar. This hypothesis represents a departure, in emphasis, from the view that moral attitudes may be taken as relatively fixed attributes of the person,¹ and focuses upon the situational frame as a variable. The hypothesis derives theoretically from, and finds its most elaborate broader statement in, the work of Sherif and Cantril, their work being an attempt to utilize the frame of reference concept as a common principle underlying the psychology of perception, judgment and attitudes.²

In their sense, and in ours,

"The term frame of reference is simply used to denote the functionally related factors (present and past) which operate at the moment to determine the particular properties of a psychological phenomenon (perception, judgment, affectivity, etc.)."³

The second hypothesis, a methodological one, revolved about the possibility of developing a scale for the measurement of attitude toward the Negro which would be semi-projective

in character. The scale would be semi-projective in the sense that it would disguise its purpose and permit the subject to project attitudes toward the Negro into materials not directly centered upon such attitudes; and, further, it would avoid the categorical and stereotypical character of the standard attitude scale. The type of instrument envisioned as a possible ultimate outcome would lie, the writer felt, somewhere between the fixed questionnaire-type attitude scale and the more unstructured types of projective devices utilized by Horowitz in the study of attitudes toward the Negro, and by Proshansky in the study of attitudes toward labor.⁴ It is important to specify that the materials described in this paper are not construed as being such a semi-projective scale; it is simply meant to suggest that the results of the study must be evaluated partially in terms of the larger methodological purpose which initially stimulated the study. It is the emphasis on exploration of methods that the writer would like to stress in the present paper, rather than the subject matter findings reported; and, in particular, methods for the more subtle discrimination of attitudinal frames of reference.

Put in more specific form, our second hypothesis suggested that those more prejudiced against the Negro would exhibit a significantly different pattern of response to moral judgment situations involving Negro persons rather than white persons; whereas the relatively unprejudiced groups would demonstrate no such differential. It can be seen that the experimental outcome of this hypothesis is directly related to the shaping of an attitude testing instrument such as

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¹ This is not suggested as a "new" idea, since the same general view is explicit in the now well known work of Hartshorne, et al., on honesty and deceit. It is rather the systematic, and theoretical, exploitation of this view which appears to have lagged. For the type of relatively more static, attribute-relating research to which we refer, cf., e.g., E. B. Skaggs, "Sex Differences in Moral Attitudes," *Journal of Social Psychology*, 11:3-10, 1940; or A. H. Jones, "Sex, Educational and Religious Influences on Moral Judgments Relating to the Family," *American Sociological Review*, 8:405-411, 1943.

² Cf. especially M. Sherif and H. Cantril, "The Psychology of 'Attitudes,'" *Psychological Review*, 52:305-319, 1945 and 53:1-23, 1946.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 309.

⁴ E. L. and R. E. Horowitz, "The Development of Social Attitudes in Children," *Sociometry*, 1:301-338, 1938; and H. M. Proshansky, "A Projective Method for the Study of Attitudes," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 38:393-395, 1943.

we have briefly sketched above.

In order to test the two stated hypotheses, six of the twelve situations contained in the Cuber-Pell "Moral Evaluations Questionnaire"¹⁵ were selected. The selection was made so that the situations used would be the six

least class-typed of those included in the original (Cuber-Pell) questionnaire. These six situations, together with the questions to which the subjects responded, are given below.

Directions:—In each of the following cases you will be given a set of facts about someone, either a real person known to the writer or a character of fiction. After you have read the "case," answer the question or questions relating to it. Do not go on to later cases until you have answered or decided to omit the current one.

1. Glenna has been married almost a decade. There are two children. Her husband's work takes him away from home often during the evening. Glenna does not object to this but is annoyed by neighborhood gossip regarding a friend of hers and her husband's who often comes to spend the evening with her while her husband is away. This man has been a good friend of hers and of her husband. "In fact," she says, "my husband often asks me why I don't invite Dale to come over oftener. Dale seems just like one of the family. He's alone much of the time himself and seems to appreciate coming over. He writes a great deal and likes to read to me what he has written—says I can give him a great deal of much-needed criticism, understanding, and encouragement to go on. That's about all we ever do."

a) Is this wrong for Glenna? Yes _____ No _____ Uncertain _____
 b) Is this wrong for Dale? Yes _____ No _____ Uncertain _____

Any remarks?

2. Bob and Helen want to get married soon. They have been engaged for a year. So far as they can foresee, it will be impossible for the marriage to take place for another two years at least. Bob and Helen have already had complete sexual relations upon a number of occasions. Helen says that she can see nothing wrong with this "as long as people marry eventually" and "do not feel guilty about it."

a) Is this wrong for Helen? Yes _____ No _____ Uncertain _____
 b) Is this wrong for Bob? Yes _____ No _____ Uncertain _____
 Any remarks?

3. Freddie and Ruth were only eighteen when they were married. They have been married seven years now and have a two-year-old daughter. They were childhood sweethearts, having dated since they were fourteen. The last year has been eventful in both their lives. Ruth has found her family doctor to be an admirable person. She had not known, however, that he was even aware of her except as a patient. But somehow it happened. They don't know just how, but they were suddenly in each other's arms. It has happened several times since—"just a few moments in an embrace, that is all." They say they "have no regrets," and "have rationalized the thing as right." Freddie also has a "friend"—a quiet, refined girl with whom he works. Both Ruth and Freddie have told each other about the "second" affair. They wish their marriage to go on because they love each other and their child and because "divorce only makes more problems than it solves." All four persons concerned know the full details of the situation.

¹⁵ J. F. Cuber and B. Pell, "A Method of Studying Moral Judgments Relating to the Family," *American Journal of Sociology*, 47:12-23, 1941.

a) Is this wrong for Ruth?	Yes	No	Uncertain
b) Is this wrong for Freddie?	Yes	No	Uncertain
c) Is this wrong for the doctor?	Yes	No	Uncertain
d) Is this wrong for Freddie's "girl friend?"	Yes	No	Uncertain

Remarks:

4. "I know Larry's in love with another woman. Folks don't have to tell me that they see him here or there with her. Larry's been in love with other women before—for a little while now and then; it never lasts. He's just not the constant type of man, that's all. I know Louise quite well. She's a nice girl and probably likes Larry a good deal. She and I are, in fact, good friends. . . . Some of my friends ask why I don't divorce Larry. Why should I? Larry, Louise, and I are all happy as things are. Why don't people leave me alone, so long as I am satisfied with the situation? I have my home, my friends, and more of Larry's time and attention than most people realize. He's good to me and goes out of his way to be considerate. . . ."

a) Is this wrong for Larry?	Yes	No	Uncertain
b) Is this wrong for his wife?	Yes	No	Uncertain
c) Is this wrong for Louise?	Yes	No	Uncertain

Remarks:

5. Jerry and Donna have been married six years. They have no children. After the first year of marriage they agreed to spend their vacations apart. Jerry says of this plan: "It gives us a chance to get away from each other, see new people, and have new and refreshing experiences. We both look forward to those vacations each year and look forward, too, to coming home again when they are over. Yes, we go out with others during those vacations. That's all in the game. Seldom do we have any very serious affairs, although it happens sometimes. I had one such serious affair once, and I think Donna did. We don't object to that either—it eventually wears off. For example, once I got lonesome for my 'summer love,' and Donna read my mind, I guess. Anyway, she suggested that I go where I might see this woman. I did, and that was all that there was to it. We both, Donna and I, feel those vacations and 'loves' make us appreciate each other more. At least that is the way it has worked out for five years now."

a) Is this wrong for Donna?	Yes	No	Uncertain
b) Is this wrong for Jerry?	Yes	No	Uncertain

Remarks:

6. Betty is suing Andrew for divorce. She says that he was a good husband, a good provider—in all, a model man. But she has fallen "out of love with him." Not that she has fallen in love with anyone else; just out of love with him. Several of her friends have tried to influence her to "go on" with Andrew and try to fall back in love with him. "Time may make a change," and all that. She is determined to get the divorce. She says that if she isn't happy, sooner or later he'll become unhappy too, "and then he'll hate me. Before that happens I will just pass out of the picture as his wife. Soon he will forget. I'm sorry about the whole thing, but I made a mistake when I married him. I did it all in good faith at the time, however."

a) Is it wrong for Betty to secure a divorce for this reason?	Yes	No	Uncertain
b) Is it wrong for Andrew to try to dissuade her?	Yes	No	Uncertain
c) Would it be wrong for Andrew to try to contest the divorce?	Yes	No	Uncertain

The next step involved the selection of two sets of pictures (culled from assorted sources; *e.g. Life*), so that there would be a Negro-white pair for each of the six situations. The pictures selected were submitted, as matched Negro-white pairs, to six judges (staff members in sociology), with instructions that the paired pictures be judged for comparability with respect to age, social class, and general emotional tone, attractiveness, etc. The six pairs used in the study were those which received approval for comparability of at least four judges. It is important to note that while the pictures differed in racial content, the moral judgment situation was identical.

The resulting set of six Negro picture-moral situation items were presented to a random half of the total student sample to be described below; and the paired set of six white picture-moral situation items were similarly presented to the other half of the total sample. Thus, any given student responded to either the white or the Negro frame of reference, but not to both. The writer had, in addition, the responses of each student to the Likert scale of attitudes toward the Negro.⁶

A total of 283 students (predominantly students in the colleges of arts, education, and commerce) were tested. Table 1 presents a breakdown of this sample; and it reveals what appears to be a rather successful, though not rigorously tested, comparability of the randomly selected groups responding to white as against Negro references.⁷ This applies, for example, to such comparisons

⁶ R. Likert, "A Technique for the Measurement of Attitudes." *Archives of Psychology*, No. 140, 1932. Likert notes that, for this scale, the *rho* for internal consistency was +.91; and the test-retest reliability coefficient, +.85. It would be well to note here that the questions relating to each of the six moral judgment situations were printed on a separate answer sheet; and the attitude scale attached to this answer sheet. This procedure made it possible for the data to be collected in a manner calculated to maintain the anonymity of individual responses.

⁷ The terms "white" and "Negro" are used consistently throughout the paper to refer to the racial reference of the picture used, not to the subjects tested. Only the responses of white students were tabulated, and included in the data analysis.

as: the total number of subjects responding to white versus Negro reference; the number of males responding to white versus Negro reference; and the income brackets of the

TABLE 1. TOTAL SAMPLE (283 CASES), BY RACIAL REFERENCE OF PICTURE, AGE AND SEX OF RESPONDENT, AND AVERAGE ANNUAL INCOME OF PARENTS

	White Reference		Negro Reference	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total.....	51	94	63	75
Age				
16-19.....	6	51	10	44
20-23.....	30	35	34	27
24 and over.....	15	8	19	4
Income				
3,000 and under....	11	10	19	14
3,001-5,000.....	15	15	16	14
5,000 and over.....	6	21	12	12
Uncertain ¹	19	48	16	35

¹ This category is not a residual category, since the frequencies represent the number of respondents who indicated uncertainty about income.

females responding to white versus Negro reference.

In the light of the hypotheses posited, analysis of the data focused first upon overall differences in response to white versus Negro reference. The total number of "Yes," "No," and "Uncertain" responses of white reference was compared with the pattern for the Negro references.⁸ The resultant chi square was statistically significant, exceeding the .01 level of significance.⁹ The direction

⁸ All comparisons were made by means of the chi-square statistic. The formula used for this computation may be found in M. J. Hagood, *Statistics for Sociologists*, New York: Reynal and Hitchcock, 1941, p. 510. All comparisons involved two degrees of freedom; and the standard interpretations were given to the obtained chi squares, such that differences between the .05 and .01 levels of significance are termed "significant" and the .01 level and beyond is considered "very significant."

⁹ The frequency of "Yes," "No," and "Uncertain" for white references were, respectively, 1291, 804, and 232; for Negro references, 1092, 853, and 238. The obtained chi square was 13.5300.

of the difference was clearly a heavier weighting of "No" and "Uncertain" responses for the Negro references.

More refined indicators of difference, however, were desired, and the total sample was

TABLE 2. NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS IN "MORE PREJUDICED" AND "LESS PREJUDICED" HALVES OF TOTAL SAMPLE, BY SEX OF RESPONDENT, BY RACIAL REFERENCE OF PICTURE

	More Prejudiced		Less Prejudiced	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total	62	72	45	97
White.	27	45	20	51
Negro.	35	31	25	46

¹ Prejudice measured in terms of responses to the Likert scale of attitudes toward the Negro.

accordingly divided into two groups falling, respectively above and below the median score on the Likert attitudes scale. These two groups are referred to as the "less prejudiced" and "more prejudiced" halves of the sample. The numerical distribution of these two groups is given in Table 2.

A comparison of the white versus the Negro references (totals for all six situations; male and female responses combined) *within* the "more prejudiced" group, revealed a difference which was not statistically significant. A similar comparison of white versus Negro within the "less prejudiced" group revealed a difference significant at a greater than .01 level.¹⁰ Again the significant difference expressed itself in the direction of a heavier weighting of "No" responses (i.e. "not wrong" responses).

A more intensive comparison *within* the two prejudice groups, using each of the six moral judgment situations as the unit of

¹⁰ For the "more prejudiced" group the frequencies were: white references—652 "Yes," 432 "No," 100 "Uncertain"; Negro reference—557 "Yes," 381 "No," 116 "Uncertain" (chi square = 4.2522; significance level between .20 and .10). For the "less prejudiced" group the frequencies were: white references—639 "Yes," 372 "No," 132 "Uncertain"; Negro reference—535 "Yes," 472 "No," 122 "Uncertain" (chi square = 21.3568; significance level greater than .01).

comparison rather than the totals, revealed the results given in Table 3. These results support the finding already noted; namely, that the "less prejudiced" group shows more difference in response to white as against Negro reference. Responses to four of the six situations (#1, #2, #4, #5,) reveal significant differences for the "less prejudiced"; while only one significant difference (situation #) appears for the "more prejudiced" group. In all of these situations, the same direction of difference is revealed; namely, a relative overweighting of the "No" and "Uncertain" responses.

These results, it should be noted here, are contrary to one of the hypotheses postulated, since we suggested that greater prejudice would be related to greater differential in response to white as against Negro frames of reference. The reverse appears to be true in these data; and we are not prepared to "explain" this fact in any real sense. Many equally likely (and contradictory) alternate

TABLE 3. CHI SQUARES AND SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES¹ IN RESPONSE TO WHITE VS. NEGRO REFERENCE, FOR "MORE PREJUDICED"¹² AND "LESS PREJUDICED"¹³ HALVES OF SAMPLE, IN SIX MORAL JUDGMENT SITUATIONS

Situation Number	More Prejudiced		Less Prejudiced	
	Chi Square	Level of Significance ¹⁴	Chi Square	Level of Significance
1	1.9040	.50-.30	16.708	* < .01
2	4.0326	.20-.10	15.0236	* < .01
3	1.6740	.50-.30	5.5096	.10-.05
4	.6300	.80-.70	6.6882	* .05-.02
5	8.6211	* .02-.01	12.5244	* < .01
6	1.7220	.50-.30	.2556	.90-.80

¹ All differences based upon two degrees of freedom.

² Prejudice measured in terms of responses to the Likert scale of attitude toward the Negro.

³ Significance is expressed in terms of the expected repetitions of differences as great as the obtained differences in 100 similar samples. Thus, for situation number 1, the interpretation of the table would state: the obtained difference, for the more prejudiced group, would occur in less than 50% but in more than 30% of the 100 hypothetical samples (not significant).

⁴ Items starred thus are significant at or beyond the .05 level.

hypotheses suggest themselves. It may be, for example, that the so-called "less prejudiced" group responds in the direction of more "No's" (i.e. "not wrong"), as a function of a more or less conscious attempt to be more liberal toward a minority group.¹¹ But it must be quickly added that this same tendency toward a greater frequency of "No" responses might be taken as expressive of the popular stereotype of the Negro, which views sex latitudes as more "natural" ("right," etc.) for them. This latter suggestion implies the more important possibility (suggested here *only* as a logical outcome of our line of thought; i.e., only as plausible possibility) that the discrepancy between the attitude score and the moral judgment differentials, is expressive of a "real" difference between the kinds of attitudes these two instruments are tapping. Put differently, it raises the question of validity, of whether the more direct attitude test is measuring the kinds of differences in attitude that get behaviorally put to work, so to speak, in (e.g.) moral judgment.¹² Similar comments *re* subtlety, validity, etc., could be made, of course, for the moral judgment instrument used here. Though

no detailed analysis has been made, the comments written in the "Remarks" section following each of the moral judgment situations, suggest that the respondents approached the situations as meaningful and important (and to that extent, valid) problem situations.

Two other types of differential analysis are important. In the light of the above findings, we wished to know whether any more generalized differences in response existed between the "more prejudiced" and "less prejudiced" groups. Accordingly, a comparison was made of their responses, with racial reference held constant. The comparison of "more prejudiced" vs. "less prejudiced" responses *for the white references only* revealed a statistically significant difference (chi square = 8.1445; level of significance between .02 and .01). The comparison of "more prejudiced" vs. "less prejudiced" *for the Negro references only*, likewise revealed a statistically significant difference (chi square = 7.6405; level of significance between .05 and .02). These results are suggestive of more generalized response differentials, between the "more prejudiced" and "less prejudiced" groups, which the present study was not adequately equipped to explore further.

It was possible, however, to examine our data further for sex differentials in response. An intensive analysis was conducted here, not only for the purpose of discovering relations between sex differentials and the frame of reference difference on which our attention centers; but also for the purpose of contributing further data on the dual morality problem.

It may be stated at the outset that the overwhelming bulk of our findings indicate no significant differences in response by sex. This statement is based upon the following types of analysis: First, the total pattern of "Yes," "No," and "Uncertain" (irrespective of racial reference) for males and females was compared; and the resulting chi square was not statistically significant (chi square = 3.7917). Second, the responses were tabulated in terms of the sex of the person involved in the situation (cf., for example,

¹¹ Some suggestions somewhat along this line are discussed in the recent study by Gordon Allport and Bernard Kramer, "Some Roots of Prejudice," *Journal of Psychology*, 22:9-39, 1946. Cf., especially, the discussion of the effects of "victimization" on pp. 27-30.

¹² It is relevant to note here that it has been a rather common practice to measure the results of projective instruments somewhat in terms of their questionnaire corollaries. Thus, for example, Proshansky (*Op. Cit.*) reports correlations of +.87 and +.67 between his projective results and scores on the Newcomb scale of attitudes toward labor. He comments, "We have, thus, preliminary evidence that the perception and interpretation of the pictures serves adequately for group purposes as an indicator of the attitudes which appear in the Newcomb scale." (page 394) Cf., also, Dubin's measurement of attitudes toward labor via both a projective technique (manipulation of toys analyzed by judges) and a standard scale. The mean correlation between judges' ratings and scale scores was +.49 (S. S. Dubin, "Verbal Attitude Scores Predicted from Responses in a Projective Technique," *Sociometry*, 3: 24-48, 1940).

questions 1a, 2a, 3a and 3d, as items calling for response to female moral behavior; and 1b, 2b, 3b and 3c, as items calling for response to male moral behavior), as well as by sex of respondent. With this data, the following inter-sex comparisons could be made:

1. Female responses to female questions *vs.* female responses to male questions
2. Male responses to female questions *vs.* male responses to male questions
3. Female responses to female questions *vs.* male responses to female questions
4. Female responses to male questions *vs.* male responses to male questions

None of these comparisons revealed a chi square of statistical significance.¹³

Third, to determine whether sex differences

TABLE 4. CHI SQUARES AND SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES¹ IN RESPONSE OF MALES VS. FEMALES, FOR PICTURES OF WHITE AND NEGRO REFERENCE, IN SIX MORAL JUDGMENT SITUATIONS

Situation Number	White Reference		Negro Reference	
	Chi Square	Level of Significance ²	Chi Square	Level of Significance
1	.9360	.70-.50	4.7882	.10-.05
2	3.0591	.30-.20	9.4256	* < .01
3	2.7936	.30-.20	.4896	.80-.70
4	2.5783	.30-.20	1.5951	.50-.30
5	4.6110	.10-.05	4.8224	.10-.05
6	14.0329	* < .01	3.9770	.20-.10

¹ All differences based upon two degrees of freedom.

² Significance is expressed in terms of the expected repetitions of differences as great as the obtained differences in 100 similar samples. Thus, for situation 2, Negro reference, the table indicates that the obtained difference would be repeated in less than a one-in-a-hundred proportion.

* Items starred thus are significant at or beyond the .05 level.

in response were related to prejudice difference, the same relations as those given above (1-4) were computed for the "more prejudiced" and "less prejudiced" groups independently. None of the obtained chi-squares,

¹³ The obtained chi squares were, in the order given above (1) .7040; (2) .8074; (3) 4.0698; and (4) .9639.

for either of the prejudice groups, was statistically significant.¹⁴

Finally, the responses of males *vs.* females, for each of the six situations, were compared, with racial reference held constant (the sex references of the questions in each situation were not separated for this analysis, the total responses to all questions in the situation, by males as against females, being the unit of comparison). The results of these comparisons are given in Table 4.

Only two items of the twelve involved statistically significant differences. The differences, in both cases, lay in the direction of a heavier weighting of "Yes" (i.e. "wrong") responses by the female respondents.

The four types of comparisons presented here argue strongly against the persistence of generalized sex differences in attitude regarding these moral judgment situations.¹⁵

What, in sum, are the implications and projections beyond the findings already given, which we may draw from the present

¹⁴ The obtained chi squares ranged from .1152 to .5719, and none of these chi squares approaches the .05 level of significance.

¹⁵ The status of this problem appears to the writer to have remained somewhat ambiguous in spite of recent research. A decade ago, Newcomb, in a review of changing sex attitudes, stated: "Most of [the evidence] suggests that the pattern of attitudes associated with this phrase [dual morality] is slowly disappearing, and has all but gone among college groups in the East and Midwest." (T. M. Newcomb, "Recent Changes in Attitudes Toward Sex and Marriage," *American Sociological Review*, 2:659-667, 1937, p. 662). In the original study of Cuber and Pell, from which our instrument was taken, the findings indicate that, "Double standard morality appeared at almost every point at which it could, although the magnitude of the differential was in most cases not greater than 10 per cent." (J. F. Cuber and B. Pell, *Op. cit.*, pp. 21-22). Other reports (e.g., E. B. Skaggs, "Sex Differences in Moral Attitudes," *Journal of Social Psychology*, 11:3-10, 1940) emphasize the agreement and "attitudinal solidarity" of the sexes. Cf., also, in this connection, A. H. Jones, "A Method for Studying Moral Judgments: Further Considerations," *American Journal of Sociology*, 48:492-497, 1943; and A. H. Jones, "Sex, Educational, and Religious Influences on Moral Judgments Relating to the Family," *American Sociological Review*, 8:405-411, 1943.

study? It appears clear that the importance of the concept of the referential frame in moral judgment is indicated; though it remains for further research to examine more discriminately the precise nature and scope of these frames for moral (and other types of) judgment. From the methodological standpoint, the writer suggests that the technique employed here may be very useful in exploring the kind of relationship of moral judgment to social processes which Piaget has made famous in his pioneer work on child morality.¹⁸

¹⁸ J. Piaget, *The Moral Judgment of the Child*. New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1932.

Further, and more specifically, the technique might well be put to work on the task of discovering some research clues regarding the operation of particular personality mechanisms, such as, e.g., the Oedipus relation. Finally, it appears to the writer that the reversal of expected response patterns for the "more prejudiced" and "less prejudiced" groups in our sample, re-emphasizes the need for extreme care in the interpretation of projective and semi-projective techniques for the study of specific attitudes. Cautiously and critically used, however, these instruments would appear to hold rich possibilities for the exploration of the frame of reference dynamic in social attitudes.

DIFFERENTIALS IN CRIME RATES BETWEEN NEGROES AND WHITES, BASED ON COMPARISONS OF FOUR SOCIO-ECONOMICALLY EQUATED AREAS*

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STUDENTS of crime commonly agree that Negroes in urban centers contribute a disproportionate share of juvenile delinquency and crime when compared with their proportion of the total population. This does not mean, however, that Negroes are innately predisposed toward crime.

THE PROBLEM OF COMPARING CRIME RATES BETWEEN NEGROES AND WHITES

Comparisons generally made of criminality between Negroes and whites are not comparisons of similar things. Dr. Edwin H. Sutherland, for example, gives no credence to innate disposition toward criminality based on the biology of race.¹

This study compares four socio-economically equated areas: two Negro and two

white areas. These are geographically distributed so that there are contiguous white and Negro areas, yet each contiguous group is located in different parts of the city (Baltimore, Maryland.)

Our primary equation pattern is the equation of communities, based on comparable socio-economic status. These four communities have striking resemblances as to physical characteristics, i.e., architectural pattern of housing, age of dwellings, size of lots, and streets lighted by gas. Physical deterioration is evident in all four areas. A secondary equation pattern is that of persons living in the areas based on occupations.

THE EQUATION OF AREAS

We will describe the characteristics of the equated areas; show their geographic location and population characteristics; state the indices used in equating the areas; delineate the socio-economic characteristics of the areas; and, finally, note the socio-economic

* Manuscript received February 25, 1947.

¹ For the delineation of other factors which may operate to make for criminality among Negroes see, Edwin H. Sutherland, *Principles of Criminology*, Lippincott, 1939, p. 122.

characteristics common to all areas.² For the area locations, see map on page 413. The white areas are designated as Area 1 and Area 2; the Negro areas as Area A and Area B, being respectively located contiguous to Area 1 and Area 2.

Population Characteristics

Population characteristics of the areas follow.

Area 1. White, principally of foreign-born extraction. Poland contributes the largest population of foreign birth; Russia, second, although numerically far smaller than those from Poland; a few Germans and Italians who have infiltrated from surrounding settlements. This area is near water-front industrial areas, and its white population is 31,997.³

Area A. Negro; popularly called "East Baltimore"; many migrants, as authenticated by governmental and school statistics; total Negro population 32,595; a predominance of unskilled workers.

Area 2. White, primarily of foreign-born extraction; white population 23,795. Lithuania dominates the foreign-born, Russia and Germany next, and a few are from Ireland, Italy, Poland, Greece, etc.

Area B. Negro; total Negro population 20,199; part of the popularly called "West Baltimore" Negro community; many migrants; mostly unskilled workers.

² Acknowledgement herewith is given the following: Mr. Wallace Reidt, Assistant Managing Director, The Criminal Justice Commission, Baltimore, for use of the records of that organization dealing with felony cases during 1940; Dr. W. Thurber Fales, Director, Statistical Section, Baltimore City Health Department, for making valuable suggestions regarding the selection of areas used in this study, and for making available data on health conditions and juvenile delinquency; Mr. Isadore Seeman, Director, Bureau of Vital Records, for compiling these data; to four Morgan State College students, Misses Pauline Bates, Mildred McGlotten, Mildred Reynolds, and Mrs. Willodyne S. Gaston, for clerical assistance; and, to Dr. Thorster Sellin, of the University of Pennsylvania, is due a special measure of thanks for his guidance throughout the period of the study.

³ All population data are based on the U. S. Census, 1940, unless otherwise specifically stated.

Indices of Equation

The indices used to equate the four areas follow: (1) Race: Predominance of either a white or Negro population; (2) similar sex distributions; (3) similar distributions by age groups; (4) own or rent place of dwelling; (5) comparable rentals; (6) comparable property valuations of owner groups; (7) major occupational patterns; (8) years of schooling completed; and, (9) number of persons in household.

Equating the Areas

The following comparative data for contiguous areas establish, in the writer's opinion, enough similarities to justify them as being equated areas, even though some variations appear.

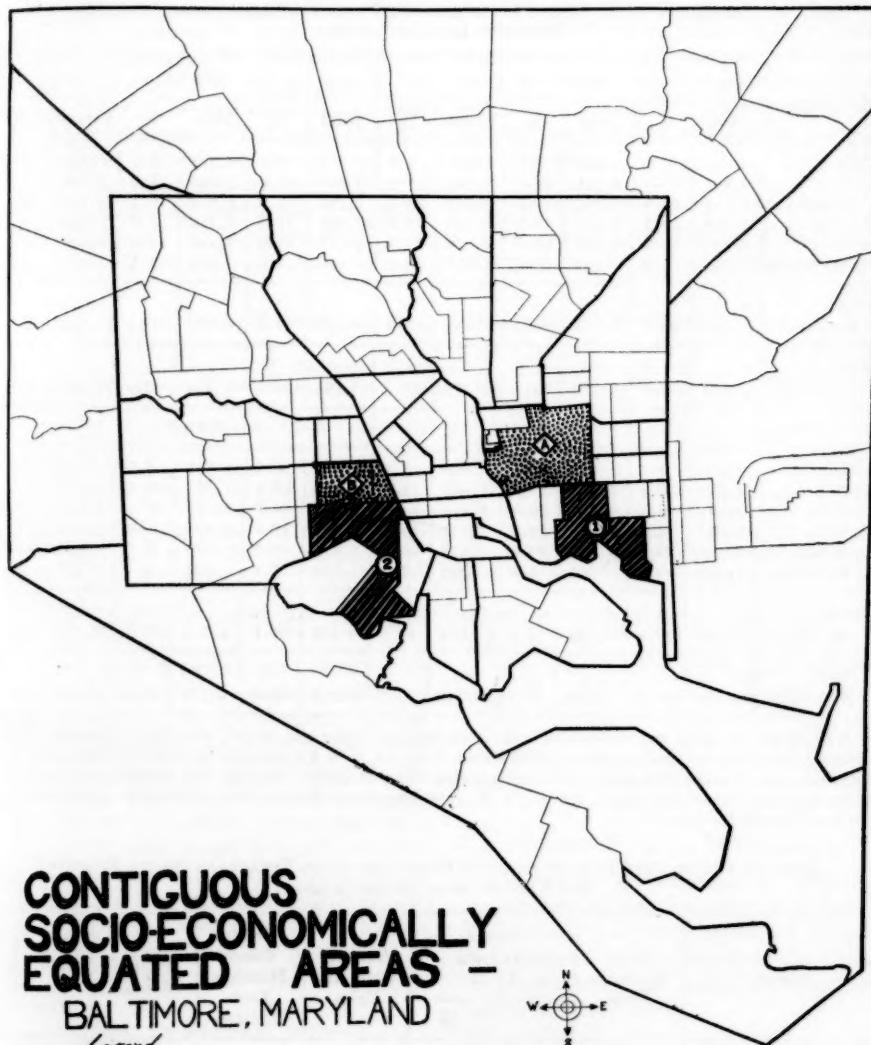
Distribution by Race, Sex and Age Groups

The comparative data in Table I summarize the distribution of population by race,⁴ sex and age groups, and generally show them to be similar. The fluctuations at several age group levels are to be expected since the white population represents a settlement of long residence, while many among the Negroes represent a relative recent migrant population, including parents and their children. Fewer persons in the upper age levels among Negroes than among the whites may be accounted for not only by high mortality rates among Negroes in congested areas, but also the non-migration of an elderly age group into the areas.

Home Ownership and Tenant Occupancy

Table II shows comparative data by areas on home ownership, tenant occupancy, rents, and valuations of owned homes. The median

⁴ In Areas 1 and 2 the Negro population and all data pertaining to them have been excluded from the figures presented in this study. Similar exclusions for the white population have been made in Areas A and B. Thus the data presented correspond to the racial type composing the given area. Negroes and whites often may live in the same census tract, but in different sections of it. Because of the segregated pattern of residence in Baltimore there is virtually no overlapping as to residence in the four areas used in this study.



CONTIGUOUS SOCIO-ECONOMICALLY EQUATED AREAS - BALTIMORE, MARYLAND

Legend

- NEGRO AREAS
- WHITE AREAS

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gross monthly rent appeared to be the best index available for these areas. It was not possible on this item to exclude data on Negroes in white areas, but a check showed only a small number of Negroes in the census tracts composing each white area.

Valuation of homes occupied by owners are careful estimates. Some inadequacy as to availability of data, and the lack of completely homogeneous data by race probably influenced to some extent the average valuation figure given in the table.

TABLE I. DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION IN EQUATED WHITE AND NEGRO AREAS, CLASSIFIED BY RACE, SEX AND AGE GROUPS

Age Groups	Area 1						Area A ¹					
	Total	%	Male	%	Female	%	Total	%	Male	%	Female	%
Under 5	2,412	7.5	1,234	7.4	1,178	7.7	3,118	9.5	1,572	9.7	1,546	9.5
5 to 14	5,455	17.0	2,751	16.4	2,704	17.7	6,168	18.9	3,032	18.6	3,136	19.2
15 to 24	7,107	22.2	3,585	21.4	3,522	23.1	5,791	17.8	2,610	16.1	3,172	19.4
25 to 44	9,852	30.8	5,446	32.6	4,406	28.8	12,055	37.0	6,112	37.6	5,943	36.4
45 to 64	5,620	17.6	2,969	17.8	2,651	17.3	4,517	13.9	2,458	15.1	2,059	12.6
65 and over	1,551	4.8	733	4.4	818	5.4	946	2.9	471	2.9	475	2.9
Totals:												
Age Groups	31,997	100.0	16,718	100.0	15,279	100.0	32,595	100.0	16,264	100.0	16,331	100.0
Totals:												
Race & Sex	31,997	100.0	16,718	52.2	15,279	47.8	32,595	100.0	16,264	49.9	16,331	50.1
Area 2							Area B					
Under 5	1,772	7.4	882	7.4	890	7.5	1,693	8.4	847	8.7	846	8.1
5 to 14	3,976	16.7	2,013	16.8	1,963	16.6	3,710	18.4	1,862	19.2	1,848	17.6
15 to 24	4,595	19.3	2,271	19.0	2,324	19.6	3,345	16.6	1,476	15.2	1,869	17.8
25 to 44	7,041	29.6	3,686	30.8	3,355	28.3	7,517	37.2	3,585	36.9	3,932	37.5
45 to 64	4,970	20.9	2,492	20.8	2,478	20.9	3,175	15.7	1,610	16.6	1,565	14.9
65 and over	1,440	6.1	615	5.1	825	7.0	759	3.7	334	3.4	425	4.1
Totals:												
Age Groups	23,794	100.0	11,959	99.9	11,835	99.9	20,199	100.0	9,714	100.0	10,485	100.0
Totals:												
Race & Sex	23,794	100.0	11,959	50.3	11,835	49.7	20,199	100.0	9,714	48.1	10,485	51.9

¹ There are 36 males and 10 females in the classification "Other non-white" who live in this area. These are not included in the total population of this area. However, U. S. Census data include these persons in the figures on school years completed, major occupations, home ownership, rentals, and persons per household. These additions are unimportant in relation to the total Negro population in the area. Similar minor addition are true likewise for Area B.

TABLE II. COMPARATIVE DATA BY AREAS ON HOME OWNERSHIP, TENANT OCCUPANCY, RENTALS, AND VALUATIONS OF OWNED PROPERTY

Areas	Total Occupied Units	Owner Occupied Units		Tenant Occupied Units	Median Gross Monthly Rent (Dollars)	Average Monthly	Average Valuation of Home (Dollars)
			%				
1 A	8,095 8,060	3,685 381	45.5 4.7	4,410 7,679	17.68 22.80		2,009 2,145 ¹
2 B	6,228 4,754	2,191 278	35.2 5.8	4,037 4,476	22.80 23.75		1,864 ² 2,386 ³
City-wide						25.82	
White household						28.14 ⁴	
Non-white household						19.46	

¹ Not available for Negroes only.

² Estimated average.

³ Estimated average; also, not available for Negroes only.

⁴ *Redevelopment of Blighted Residential Areas in Baltimore*, Commission on City Plan, July 1, 1945, p. 21.

Although the total occupied units are reasonably comparable, a wide variation in owner-occupied units is seen between Areas 1 and 2, compared with Areas A and B. The differences favor the white areas. This reflects the longer residence in their areas, plus, perhaps, larger accumulated savings, more freedom in buying as opposed to residence in restricted areas, and greater ease in financing home purchase. This is worth noting since all the areas in this study represent low socio-

workers are one step up the occupational ladder above Negroes. White males predominate as craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers; Negro males predominate as laborers. The large number of Negro females employed have a virtual monopoly as domestic service workers.

Years of Schooling Completed

The average adult has had a sixth grade education or less. The median years of

TABLE III. MAJOR OCCUPATIONAL PATTERNS IN THE FOUR AREAS

Areas	Professional Workers			Craftsmen, Foremen and Kindred Workers			Domestic Service Workers			Laborers		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1 A	257 133	143 84	114 49	2,055 451	1,911 442	144 9	79 2,498	4 66	75 2,432	2,123 4,544	2,008 4,479	115 65
2 B	142 155	75 73	67 82	1,766 235	1,662 230	104 5	127 2,437	2 116	125 2,321	844 2,437	812 2,364	32 73

economic indices compared with the city as a whole.

Comparison of median gross rents for the several areas shows Negroes paying higher rents than whites. These differentials conform to the alleged fact that Negroes pay higher rents than whites for comparable dwellings. This is not in conflict with the fact that the city-wide averages show Negroes pay much lower rents than whites. It must be remembered that the city-wide averages include wide extremes of economic sufficiency, and likewise, wide differences in rent. Thus the city-wide averages are not comparable to rents paid in these areas.

Major Occupational Patterns

Table III shows the occupations in which most of the gainful workers are employed. Employment is comparatively negligible in categories other than those listed. The figures show two patterns pertinent to this study: (1) persons engaged in professional work are decidedly in the minority in all four areas; and (2) although occupational dominance is at the lowest occupational levels, the white

schooling completed for persons 25 years and over are:

Median school years completed

Areas	Male	Female
1	6.7	5.9
A	5.3	6.0

Areas	Male	Female
2	4.6	4.4
B	6.1	6.5

Number of Persons in Household

The size of the household is comparable in all areas. Either no average is shown, or an estimated average is given for the sub-classifications in the Negro areas. Census tract data were not available "where the base is less than 100."

Other Quasi-Equation Indices

Additional data were collected relative to the equating of areas as to the state of repair of dwellings, proportion of homes with a radio, pattern of refrigeration (ice or mechanical), and pattern of heating (central heating unit or not). In all areas, (1) a substantial number of houses needed repairs; (2) there was a preponderant use of ice for

9.5
9.2
9.4
6.4
2.6
2.9
0.0
50.1
8.1
17.6
17.8
37.5
14.9
4.1
0.0
51.9
These in the hold. lition
age tation home (ars)
09 45¹
64²
86³
p. 21.

Areas	Median number of persons in household		
	All occupied units	Owner-occupied units	Tenant-occupied units
1	3.39	4.08	2.94
A	3.92	Inadequate data	Inadequate data
2	3.32	3.46	3.27
B	3.45	3.71 (Estimated)	3.10 (Estimated)

refrigeration; (3) radios were present in a substantial proportion of homes (83.6 per cent or more); and (4) a preponderant lack of a central heating unit. The disparity between the presence or absence of a central heating plant was far greater in Areas 1 and A than in Areas 2 and B.

The data in Table IV show selected indices of health status in the four areas. These data cover a five year period. This span of time makes for relative stabilization of figures and rates, compared with fluctuations which may

Summary of Characteristics of the Areas

The characteristics which either are common to all areas, or are similar in contiguous areas are summarized below.

Similarities

1. Each area is relatively homogeneous as to racial population. Because of the segregated pattern of residence in Baltimore there is virtually no overlapping as to residence. Moreover, the numerical similarity in the total population in each of the con-

TABLE IV. INDICES OF HEALTH STATUS IN THE FOUR AREAS¹

Areas	Live Births (1938-1942)	Infant Deaths (1938-1942)	Infant Death Rate per 1,000 Live Births: 1938-1942	New Cases of Tuberculosis Reported (1938-1942)	Tuberculosis Case Rate per 10,000 Popula- tion: 1938-1942
1	2,965	137	46.2	306	19.1
A	3,999	257	64.3	736	45.1
2	2,333	128	54.9	195	16.3
B	2,333	164	70.3	462	45.7

¹ Data compiled by the Bureau of Vital Statistics of the Baltimore City Health Department. Data shown are figures and rates compiled by white and non-white in each area. See footnote 1, page 6, and footnote 1 Table I, page 7.

be evident in data compiled for any one year. Moreover, attention is called to the fact that the midpoint of the period is 1940, which is prior to the heavy migration of workers and their families into Baltimore during the war years. Thus the data show a relatively normal pattern of health conditions prior to the greater congestion of population incident to the war period. A careful examination of these data show more unfavorable health conditions in Areas A and B, than in Areas 1 and 2, but they also reveal a similar low health status in all areas.

contiguous areas is close enough to be used for comparative purposes.

2. In spite of some differences which were noted earlier, there is a similarity in the distributions by sex and age groups in contiguous areas.

3. Contiguous areas have a comparable number of total dwelling units occupied. This numerical similarity is markedly close in Areas 1 and A.

4. Occupational dominance in all areas is in the lower occupational levels.

5. All areas are characterized by a low

educational status of adults, the educational status being below the 7th grade.

6. The size of household is comparable in all areas.

7. Data of quasi-equation indices show additional points of low socio-economic status comparable to data showing equation of areas. Similarly, low health status is evident in all these areas. It may be added, however, that although data reveal comparable low standards, conditions are somewhat less favorable in Negro areas than in the corresponding white areas.

Differences

Characteristic differences between the white and Negro areas are summarized below.

1. The white populations are predominantly of foreign-born extraction. They are a settled population of long residence in their areas. On the other hand, there is a large element of migrants in the two Negro populations.⁵ The difference in settlement patterns make for some differences in age group distributions, though not wide enough to invalidate comparisons between contiguous areas.

2. Home ownership is greater among the whites than among the Negroes. Conversely, the Negroes are a larger tenant group.

3. Negroes pay somewhat higher rents than whites for comparable dwelling units.

4. The whites are one step up the occupational ladder above Negroes, although occupational dominance in all areas is at the lowest occupational levels.

The materials presented above show that the areas in this study have homogeneous populations, and also that they are socio-

⁵ Dr. W. Thurber Fales writes: "Natural increase therefore accounted for 51.8 per cent of the increase in the white population and 14.9 per cent of the increase in the non-white population. The remainder of the increase between the 1930 and 1940 census is due to migration into the City. Since only 14.9 per cent of the net increase for colored population was accounted for by natural increase, it is obvious that the immigration to the City has been much more pronounced for the Negro than for the white population." *The Councillor*, June, 1941.

economically equated areas. These areas, moreover, are below the city-wide average as to socio-economic status. Furthermore, they are areas characterized by urban blight. Based on these equations as to externalities, we thus assume equal planes of living in these areas. Having established the equation of areas, we turn now to an examination of crime rates in these equated areas.

DIFFERENTIALS IN CRIME RATES IN EQUATED AREAS

Do differentials in crime rates persist even in face of the equation of areas? Felonies committed during 1940 will be our chief index to the extent of crime in these equated areas. Felonies may be divided into two groups: (1) felonies reported to the police and where the victim is known, but the offender is unknown or not apprehended; and, (2) felonies reported to the police, where both the victim and the accused are known; where the accused has been brought to trial, either in 1940 or subsequently; and, where a definite judicial disposition has been made of the case. Cases within the second group are used herein.

Cases of felony for the year 1940 have been selected for several reasons. First, the 1940 U. S. Census data were used for the socio-economic equation of areas. Second, it was desirable to select a year prior to the heavy migration into Baltimore incident to the war period. This allowed for an assumed relative normal pattern of criminal behavior in Baltimore. Finally, felony cases were selected also because they are the more serious types of criminal behavior, requiring more careful investigations than misdemeanors. Thus it was felt that though fewer cases in number than for misdemeanors, felony cases would represent a fairly reliable index to the extent of criminality in a given year.

Crime Rates

Table V shows the extent of crime in the four areas during 1940. It will be noted that the crime rate for Area 1 is 2.36 compared with 15.11 for Area A. Similarly, the rate

for Area 2 is 2.21 compared with 12.47 for Area B. There were no felonies committed by white females in Areas 1 and 2 to compare with those committed by Negro females in Areas A and B. Several striking differences are evident. In the first place, differences in crime rates persist even in equated areas. Secondly, there is a wide difference in these

TABLE V. PERSONS ACCUSED OF FELONIES DURING 1940, CLASSIFIED BY AREA (RACE) AND SEX, AND SHOWING AREA RATES OF FELONIOUS CRIME

Areas	Males		Females	
	Accused Persons	Area Rate ¹	Accused Persons	Area Rate ¹
1 A	25 153	2.36 15.11	— 23	— 2.34
2 B	17 76	2.21 12.47	— 5	— 0.74

¹ The area rate is a ratio, expressed in thousands, between the number of accused persons in relation to the area population 21 years of age and over, classified by race and sex. Although some under 21 years of age were charged with a felony, the proportion of such cases compared with those 21 years of age and over was not unduly large. The maximum age in this series was 59. Since census data are not available for the exact age groups of persons younger than 21 who correspond to those under 21 who had committed felonies, it was judged that a valid ratio would be obtained by including the cases under 21 since there were adults in the population figures who were over 59 years of age.

rates. Finally, the rates among the Negro females correspond more closely to the rates for the white males, than do the rates when comparing white males with Negro males.

Juvenile delinquency rates also are higher in the Negro areas than in the white areas. Juvenile delinquency rates per 1,000 of population, ages 6-17, for the years 1939-1942, inclusive, were computed for these areas. The rate for Area 1 was 14.4, for Area A, 26.7, for Area 2, 22.0, and for Area B, 28.4. Differentials in rates persist in juvenile delinquency even as in felonies, although less markedly so.

Types of Offenses

Crimes committed by persons living in one of the four areas, without regard to the place

where the crime was committed, were canvassed, classified by areas and by sex. Space limitation necessitates a summary of these findings. A striking fact evident in the figures is that all murder and manslaughter offenses were committed by Negroes. Indeed, when the offenses are classified according to "crimes against persons" and "crimes involving property" more than 40.0 per cent of the crimes in Area A, and more than 50.0 per cent of those in Area B are crimes against persons, such as murder, manslaughter, rape, and aggravated assault. It is of value to note that, though fewer in number, the offenses in 13 categories other than murder and manslaughter in Areas 1 and 2 correspond roughly to a pattern similar to that in Areas A and B. But even with a general similarity one important difference may be noted, namely, that in Areas A and B some crimes against persons involved loss of life, whereas there was no such outcome in crimes in Areas 1 and 2.

Multiple Felonies

There were few cases of clear recidivism for 1940. Instead, there were cases where the same person committed more than one offense prior to arrest, and where trial and sentence covered the several different acts. It should be kept in mind that penalties inflicted for felonies often would insure incarceration for periods longer than one year. Persons involved in the 1940 cases thus either may have been or subsequently may have become recidivists. Our analysis concerns only the cases for one year. Hence we refer to multiple felonies rather than recidivism.

Multiple felonies occurred most frequently in Area A. The nature of the offenses, number of persons involved, and the time element in each case are summarized in the data which follow. Sample cases only are presented.

Area A. One act of burglary; one person; a second act of burglary, involving the same person and one other person; second act occurred 3 months later than the first act. Short sentence served for first act prior to commission of second act.

Area 2. Four separate acts, involving the same person. One act of assault, and 1 assault to rape act on the same day. Similarly, on the next day 1 act of assault, and 1 assault to rape act. Four separate victims; 2 separate acts each day.

Area B. Three separate acts of burglary; same 2 persons involved; two acts one day, third act on the succeeding day.

Convictions

The felony cases for 1940 were canvassed with reference to their disposition by the court. This was done to determine whether or not wide differences were evident in convictions in Areas 1 and 2 compared with convictions in Areas A and B. It was found that 17.0 per cent of the cases in Area A, and 17.3 per cent of the cases in Area B were found "Not Guilty." In Area 1 only 1 person was found "Not Guilty," while in Area 2, 17.6 per cent were so found.

Attention is called to the fact that percentages determined for Areas 1 and 2 are not to be regarded as equally valid as those for Areas A and B since there are far fewer cases in Areas 1 and 2 than in Areas A and B. But even in face of this limitation, based on an examination of the proportions convicted to the total cases in each area, there is no reason to even suspect that Negroes were more readily convicted than whites. This is important since it rules out an element of policy as influencing the higher crime rates in Areas A and B than in Areas 1 and 2.

TENTATIVE FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

The basic assumption with which we started in this study is that most comparisons of crime rates do not take into account differences in socio-economic status between the groups compared. Thus we equated contiguous areas to determine if differentials in crime rates persisted after equation. Felony cases during 1940 were used as an index to criminality. Crime rates in the 2 Negro areas continued to be higher than in the 2 white areas.

The primary equation pattern was the equating of communities, with reference to

socio-economic status. There was also a relative equation of persons, based principally on the predominance of low status occupations. Thus, there was on the one hand, an equation based on externalities, viz., housing, and urban blight, and, on the other hand, an equating of population with the consequent assumption of equal planes of living.

That these areas are equated will hardly be seriously questioned. However, one recognizes that the equation is basically the equating of objective aspects of the areas. This fails to take into account subjective aspects, such as cultural meanings, which are basic to behavior patterns characteristic of a group. Even though holding to the validity of an equation of externalities, it is questionable whether or not a high degree of equation of subjective factors is obtainable.

Regarding criminal behavior in these areas we noted that there was no evidence of a policy whereby conviction rates were unfavorable to Negroes. Moreover, there was evidence of a general similarity in the patterns of offenses between Negroes and whites, although among the Negroes were concentrated the offenses involving loss of life. In light of these facts the validity of the determination of crime rates is judged equally valid as the equation of areas.

Although there was a basic similarity in the equation pattern, there were also some differences which were judged to be significant in their implications. Of these, the most significant variation was the fact that although both groups were predominantly in low occupational lines, the whites in Areas 1 and 2 were one step up the occupational ladder over the Negroes in Areas A and B. This fact raises the question as to whether or not the relatively fixed occupational status of the Negro does not reflect itself in a differential in the plane of living even though white and Negro areas are equated as to externalities and the relative equation of persons.

Homicides are more prevalent among Negroes. One alleged prevalent mode of behavior among Negroes is that of carrying knives and guns. If one accepts this as

widespread, one accepts the accompanying alleged attitude of "security" borne of having a weapon. The presence of weapons often leads to their use, more than likely resulting in high homicide rates. Another stereotyped conception of behavior among Negroes is that of an enhanced prestige among the Negro criminal growing out of being considered a "bad" man. Fear of such a person often leads either to a bullying attitude, or the challenging of such behavior; aggravated assault or homicide frequently being the outcome.

While one cannot accept the foregoing stereotyped modes of behavior as the explanation of higher crime rates among Negroes, neither can one deny that in many cases these are factors conducive to criminal behavior. A more reasoned explanation is to be found in the poverty of life in the deteriorated areas inhabited by them. One recognizes this poverty on every hand and in a variety of its manifestations. Because of it, life in these areas has been reduced largely to organic survival; and the reflex of this is an organic plane of living. This poverty is more than economic; it is pervasive in character: bad housing, overcrowding, restricted areas of settlement, limited outlets of expression, as in recreation, restricted employment opportunities, etc. On every hand the Negro

is hedged in by racial proscriptions.

The white areas have a population characterized by low economic status and a foreign-born extraction, but they are also a population of long residence in these areas, in contrast to a Negro population predominantly of relative recent migration. The Negroes with generally fewer resources have correspondingly heavier economic drains on their limited means than a comparable socio-economic status white population, (e. g., Negroes generally pay higher rents than whites for comparable houses.) Based on longer residence, wider occupational opportunities, easier financing of purchasing houses, etc., home ownership is far greater among the whites than Negroes.

Due to a low socio-economic status, accentuated by racial proscriptions, the Negroes in these areas, even as elsewhere, do not have a freedom of wholesome expression comparable to that of a similarly situated white group. Out of these and similar conditions arise elements conducive to greater criminality, as well as other forms of pathology, among the Negro population. It is out of community situations comparable to those just indicated that there develops a characteristic mode of behavior which is conducive to the emergence of the Negro criminal.

SAVING THE LIVES OF GOOD NEIGHBORS*

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SEVEN MILLION immigrants within the next 10 years are hoped for by South American Countries recently canvassed by Phil Clark, of *La Prensa Asociada*. These, he states, are to be recruited "under bold immigration programs instituted by Latin American republics striving toward agricultural and industrial self-sufficiency."¹ Immigration policies were also of major concern

to the First Inter-American Demographic Congress,² which recommended: "That the governments of the American countries include in their post-war planning the immigration problem, and establish the relations, qualitative as well as quantitative, between the actual population and the addition necessary to maintain and increase production in that land, without injury to the social level." Thus, methods of attracting immi-

* Manuscript received April 14, 1947.

¹ Syndicated newspaper article, *The Washington Post*, January 4, 1947.

² *Estadística*, March, 1944.

grants constitute a major post-war program of a number of South American governments.

Many population experts, however, are skeptical as to the possibility of attracting immigration in a volume of 700,000 a year in the near future.³ In this connection, it will be remembered that the United States never received over a million immigrants a year except in a few years which were characterized by very marked industrial expansion in this country coinciding with population pressure out of Europe. The immediate future does not promise a comparable industrial expansion in Latin America, and the deficits of population in Europe which were caused by the two world wars have made most European nations seek to import labor rather than to export it. Practically all of them seek at least to hold the population they now have.

It is encouraging to see that one large segment of the world is anxious to extend a welcome to the harried, distressed, homeless people uprooted by the war. This skepticism is, therefore, not intended to discourage the efforts of our Southern neighbors to attract immigrants—it is rather a warning against undue hope for large population gains from this source.

Doubt as to the ability to secure such a large volume of immigration may, however, serve to focus attention on another population resource which is nearer at hand and from which an increase of over a half million a year is potentially attainable. This is the rate of natural increase. Most Latin American countries are still characterized by high birth rates and relatively high death rates. Although death rates in Argentina are about as low as those in the United States, crude death rates of 20 per thousand prevail in some countries, and rates of 16 and over are the rule in most of the countries.⁴

³ Davis Kingsley, *Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly*, January, 1947.

⁴ From Vital Statistics in the United States, 1943. These rates are in most cases approximate, since the population figures on which they are based are inadequate and since there is considerable under

These rates would indicate that there are approximately 1,750,000 deaths a year in Latin America. While data are not sufficiently accurate to make reliable estimates as to the number of these deaths which are postponable beyond age 65, sufficient material is at hand to warrant a fairly safe conclusion that from 500,000 to 600,000 of these deaths could be effectively postponed. Such a saving would still leave the death rates in most of the countries somewhat above present mortality levels in the United States. This would yield an attainable population increase almost as large as that envisioned by the rosy optimism of those who expect large immigration.

This conclusion is based on the following considerations:

1. From 35 to 40 per cent of the deaths occur under five years of age. This is to say, there are approximately 600,000 child deaths. Deaths under one year of age per 1,000 live births run well over 100 in most South American countries and up to 200 in Chile. Even Argentina, with a relatively low general death rate, has an infant rate of 90 as against 40 in the United States. A saving of half of the deaths would leave child mortality still considerably higher than that in the United States and would produce a population increment of 300,000 a year.

2. The conservative estimate of the potential saving of life between the ages of 5 and 65 would add another 200,000 or 250,000 increment. This would seem feasible in the light of present high rates of maternal deaths and deaths from parasitic diseases, pneumonia, typhoid, smallpox, and, in some areas, yellow fever, plague, and other tropical diseases.

3. According to the Peruvian statistical abstract of 1943, only about one-third of the deaths in that country occurred with a physician in attendance, and the ratio of physicians to population was 1 to 5,000, as against an optimum ratio of 1 to 1,000 proposed for

registration of deaths. Likewise, the rates in some countries are quoted only for a few of the major cities and in other countries omit the mortality among the Indian tribes.

the United States. Likewise, the ratio of hospital beds to persons was 19 beds per 10,000 people. Thus, a strenuous effort to increase health personnel and facilities would contribute greatly to the reduction in sickness and postponement of death. Not only can great improvement in health be expected by the over-all expansion of medical personnel and facilities, but much can also be secured by more adequate distribution of these facilities. As in the United States, the rural areas of South America are relatively under privileged. In Peru, the ratio of physicians to people in Lima province is 1 to 1,000, while one department, with over a quarter of a million people, has only 3 doctors or 1 to 90,000. The distribution of hospital beds is likewise irregular, since the department of Callao has 102 beds per 10,000 inhabitants, as against only 2 in some of the rural provinces.

4. Postponement of death is also more feasible in Latin American populations because they are relatively young in their age distribution. Past excess of births over deaths has left a high proportion of the population under age 20. In fact, the census populations show from 48 to 55 per cent under age 20, as against about 38 per cent in the United States (in 1930). If South Americans escape the extreme hazards of mortality in the younger ages, then longevity seems about as great as that of other countries. Bronson points out⁵ that after age 40 expectation of life is about as long in the South American countries for which life tables are available as it is in the United States.

While saving in mortality would be the most measurable result of intensified public health measures, a reduction in sickness would go hand in hand with postponement of death, with the result that the well years of life added would constitute a priceless economic and social resource.

The reproductive potential of Latin American populations, when mortality is curbed, is exemplified by recent Puerto Rican experience. There, from 1910 to 1944, the birth

rate has remained about 40 and the death rate has declined from 25 to 14.8, with the result that the population nearly doubled (82 per cent increase) in spite of some out migration. Density has reached 550 per square mile.

While this and the other islands of the West Indies typify the almost explosive natural increase possible when mortality is reduced, they show at the same time the danger of poverty which can result from such expansion if it is not accompanied by proportionate expansion of economic opportunity.

While the land area of the Caribbean islands is more restricted than that of Continental nations, the area of optimum utilization on the Continent is not unlimited. Policies of population expansion in these nations should, therefore, be coordinated with policies of optimum population distribution and adjustment to agricultural and industrial opportunity. Equal attention needs to be devoted to the development of systems of education, security, and welfare which will assure a rising standard of living as well as an expansion in numbers.

It must, of course, be recognized that reduction in mortality cannot be attained quickly or inexpensively. The necessary expansion of facilities, training of personnel, and diffusion of knowledge is a long-time process.

A considerable segment of the cultural exchange program, promoted by the State Department in cooperation with other Federal executive agencies, has a direct bearing on the improvement of health and the attainment of a better balance between population and resources in Latin America. The professional skills of the departments chiefly responsible for the promotion of the public welfare in this country are mobilized through the Interdepartmental Committee on Scientific and cultural Cooperation and made available to Latin America by means of exchanges of Government officials, professors, students, and scientific and cultural materials.

The description of the specific project in this

⁵ Bronson, Dorrance C.—"Transactions of the Actuarial Society of America," October, 1944.

field will illustrate the character of this operation and indicate some of the possibilities for cooperation by social scientists in universities. This project is the 1950 Census of the Hemisphere and the correlative efforts to improve vital statistics.

A first requisite for sound selection of necessary public health measures and planning their operation is better information as to the nature and distribution of public health problems. A first requisite for a rational adjustment of population to resources is a thorough analysis of the resource potential and the inherent population trends.

As we noted previously, the character of the information at hand is highly unsatisfactory for any determinations except those of a most general nature. Both the population figures on which rates are based and the registration of deaths and causes of deaths on which incidence is based leave much to be desired in completeness and accuracy. Some of the countries have never had a census in the modern sense of the word, and others have had none for several decades. Registration and processing of vital statistics in all but a few of the countries are rudimentary or not nation-wide in coverage.

Social scientists in the United States have a unique opportunity to collaborate with South American scholars in bringing about a marked improvement both in the raw material and in analytical methods for planning population and public health policies. On the initiative of the Inter American Statistical Institute, all Latin American nations have expressed a lively interest and agreed to cooperate in a comparable Census of the Hemisphere in 1950. It is axiomatic that the preparation for a successful census and the plans for meaningful analysis of its results will depend upon a broad and thorough program of training of the technicians who will supervise and analyze the census. It will also require a considerable degree of preparation of public opinion for a successful census in some of those countries which do not have a census tradition.

To facilitate this training program, the Interdepartmental Committee on Scientific and Cultural Cooperation, under the leadership of the Department of State, is giving major attention to training technicians for the 1950 Hemisphere Census. A number of statistical employees of South American governments, it is hoped, will be brought to this country for training on the job in the Bureau of the Census and other statistical bureaus of the Government in order that they may receive actual experience in census procedures and administration. Statistical advisers will also probably be sent under the Department of State auspices to assist in the organization and staffing of census units and vital statistics bureaus. This program will be developed as rapidly as appropriations from the Congress will permit.

In addition to these exchanges officially fostered by the Department of State, there are hundreds of Latin American students in the colleges of the United States who are here either on their own resources or on private scholarships. All of these are, of course, not majoring in social science, medicine, or public health, but the majority will probably return to positions which will enable them to exert influence on public opinion. All would, therefore, profit by a closer knowledge of the plans and possibilities of the 1950 Census. This means that the teachers of social science in the institutions which enroll a considerable number of Latin American students have an opportunity to acquaint these students with this movement for improvement in the basic materials for social research and planning.

A realistic approach to the improvement, collection, and analysis of fundamental social facts will contribute greatly to the understanding of the human relationship in the Hemisphere. Certainly one of the finest manifestations of good neighborliness would be the whole-hearted cooperation of all the social scientists in the exchange of knowledge and skills which have a bearing on the conservation of human resources.

INDEX NUMBERS FOR SOCIAL SECURITY PROGRAM ANALYSIS*

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AFTER a decade of experience with the Social Security Act of 1935, it is now possible to take stock of gains and losses, to delineate clearly the national picture in terms of regional patterns, to check levels of payment in the several states against ability to pay, and to study more closely the effects that a changing price structure are having upon levels of living among recipients of benefits.

Seeing increases of a few cents each month in average payments under programs of categorical aid, and comparing present levels with remembered ones of a decade ago, is it correct to believe that we are making substantial progress toward the goal of adequacy of payments? Or has the decline in the purchasing value of the dollar been so great that increases are more nominal than real? In view of increases in national income, do the present grants provide recipients with levels of living that are closer to, or farther away from, those of the general population than in the prewar period? Is the social security movement as evidenced by rate of progress toward its goals, gaining or losing momentum in the United States? What are the underlying dynamics of this social movement as it unfolds in this country?

Both the public welfare administrator and the student of the social security movement are likely to have difficulty in arriving at answers to such questions from the rows and columns of figures representing average grants by states. They are left often with the feeling that these tables could provide the answers if they were related to other series of statistical data not conveniently at hand.

Economists, facing a like problem of interpreting trends in time series, have long realized the usefulness of index numbers and

have developed hundreds of series of such numbers published on the financial pages of newspapers, in magazines devoted to advancement of business, and in government publications containing analyses of current trends in business. Index numbers are an effective answer to the need for relating data to earlier points in time, and to other series of data affecting their meaning. They facilitate comparisons between states, and summarize masses of data not readily comprehended except through their use. Social workers have learned to use some of these series, most commonly the cost of living indexes of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Doubtless it has occurred to many public Welfare workers that analysis of trends in social security could be made easier through use of index numbers representing the many series of statistical data published monthly by agencies operating social security programs. To bring closer the day when they are currently available, this article presents some of the index numbers the writer has developed for his own use in study of trends. They are presented with the hope that they can be superseded soon by improved index numbers. If administrators and students of social security programs will make known their criticisms and will indicate the questions they want index numbers to answer, statisticians should be able to construct indexes to meet their needs more fully.

Each index value in Table 1 can be interpreted, as index numbers generally are, as a percentage. None of these values requires a knowledge of advanced statistics for its calculation or interpretation. Whether grants are expressed in dollars and cents or as index numbers, caution should be exercised, of course, in comparing them for different states when regional differences in living habits and costs have a direct bearing upon adequacy of grants of a given amount. As more complete

* Manuscript received May 7, 1947.

TABLE I. INDEX NUMBERS BY STATES FOR AVERAGE OAA GRANTS: JANUARY 1946

State	Index Numbers				State	Index Numbers			
	A	B	C	D		A	B	C	D
U. S.	100	159	78	100	U. S.	100	159	78	100
Ala.	50	143	52	83	Nebr.	103	188	69	106
Ariz.	125	153	80	156	Nev.	124	141	83	115
Ark.	54	182	69	94	N. H.	98	136	79	117
Calif.	153	144	75	119	N. J.	105	180	99	88
Colo.	133	105	51	140	N. M.	100	247	108	141
Conn.	128	152	85	102	N. Y.	124	160	86	89
Del.	58	168	97	49	N. C.	44	148	63	70
Fla.	96	190	85	111	N. D.	110	202	60	112
Ga.	38	121	49	58	Ohio.	100	135	67	89
Ida.	105	150	63	114	Oklahoma.	113	234	94	147
Ill.	107	196	99	91	Ore.	125	181	79	113
Ind.	84	163	72	84	Penn.	99	141	74	95
Ia.	106	167	65	110	R. I.	112	188	106	101
Kans.	98	160	62	101	S. C.	51	147	58	89
Ky.	37	121	54	58	S. D.	86	144	41	91
La.	75	233	103	109	Tenn.	52	120	46	74
Me.	98	139	65	107	Tex.	79	179	80	99
Md.	91	162	85	87	Utah.	125	152	68	141
Mass.	146	163	91	127	Vt.	75	165	80	85
Mich.	106	174	94	107	Va.	49	—	—	62
Minn.	106	166	78	114	Wash.	170	227	96	139
Miss.	52	357	133	108	W. Va.	54	120	60	74
Mo.	85	190	87	92	Wis.	97	151	66	97
Mont.	104	158	73	102	Wyo.	126	184	94	132

N.B. See Table 2 for data and sources employed in computing index numbers. The formulas used in making these calculations are as follows:

$$A = \frac{\text{State Average OAA Grant, January 1946}}{\text{U. S. Average OAA Grant, January 1946}} \times 100.$$

$$B = \frac{\text{State Average OAA Grant, January 1946}}{\text{State Average OAA Grant, January 1938}} \times 100.$$

$$C = \frac{(\text{State Av. OAA Grant, Jan. '46}) \times (\text{State Per Capita Income, 1937})}{(\text{State Av. OAA Grant, Jan. '38}) \times (\text{State Per Capita Income, 1945})} \times 100.$$

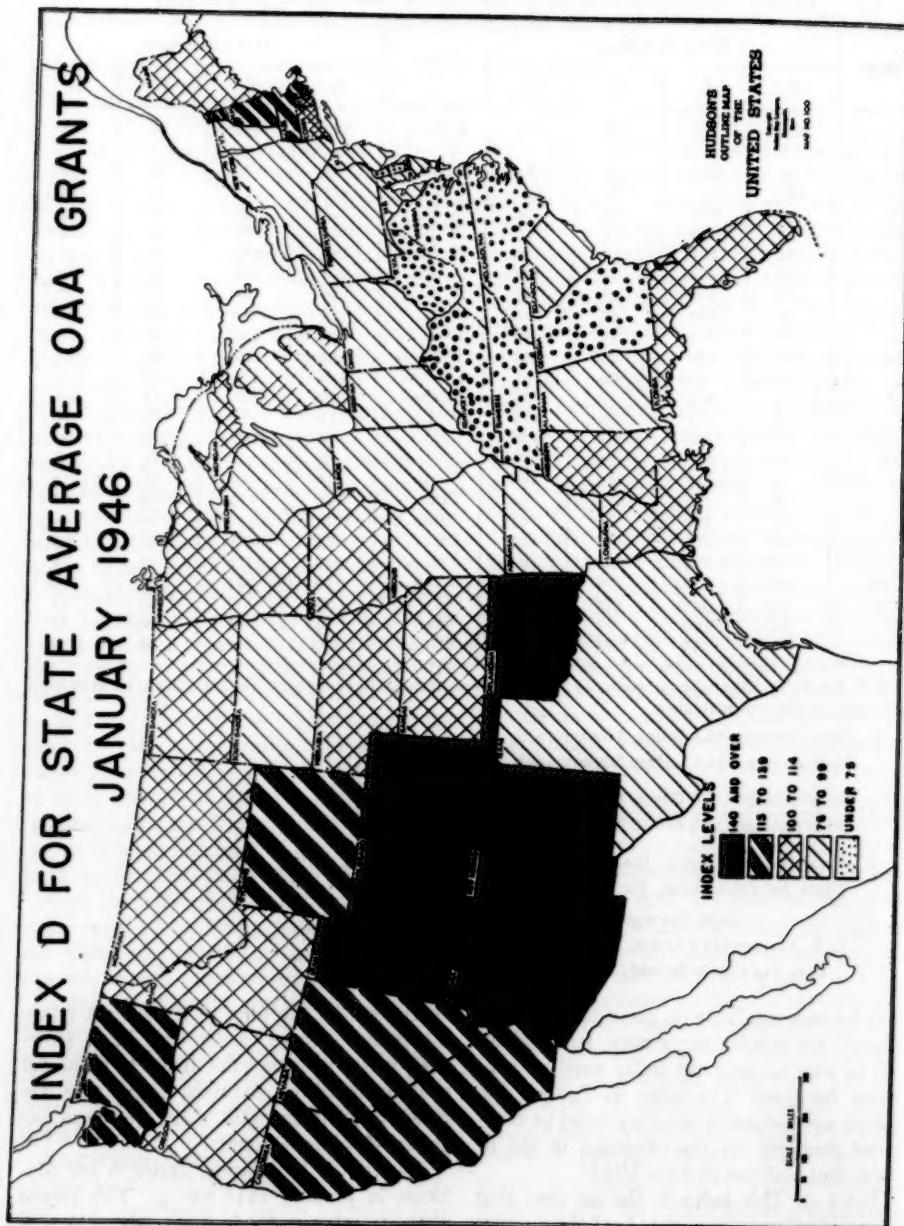
$$D = \frac{\text{State Average OAA Grant, January 1946}}{\frac{\text{U. S. Average OAA Grant, Jan. '46}}{\text{U. S. Per Capita Income, 1945}} \times \text{State Per Capita Income, 1945}} \times 100.$$

data become available on these regional differences for specific age-groups, statisticians will be able to construct index numbers corrected for them. The index in Table I for the old age assistance program could be computed similarly for the programs of aid to dependent children and the blind.

Index A. This index is the per cent that the average grant in a state is of the average grant for the United States in the same month. It is not an index number in the

strict sense of the term as it does not relate the grant to some earlier time base. However, it is a relative value likely to be useful since comparisons between percentages are often more meaningful than are those between absolute amounts.

By way of illustration, Index A for Alabama in January 1946 was 50. This means that its average OAA grant (\$15.66) was fifty per cent of the national average (\$31.06) in the same month. It will be ob-



served that the range of values for this index was from 37 for Kentucky to 170 for the State of Washington. The grant (\$52.67) in the latter state was 170 per cent of the national average or 70 per cent higher than it.

Index B. This indicates the per cent that the average monthly grant for a state is of the average grant for that state during the same month in an earlier year chosen as the base. The year 1938 was the base used for this series of values in Table 1, but another year might be preferable. In earlier years when programs were just getting under way, average grants were somewhat erratic from month to month, and data for a number of states were lacking. Later years take us into the period when expenditures for preparedness and lend-lease placed our economy on virtually a war footing. For analysis of short time trends it might be preferable to employ the same month of the immediately preceding year as the base; so constructed the index would show the percentage of change in the grant over a twelve month period. The question of what base period is best should not delay construction of index numbers since a simple statistical operation will convert a series from one base to another.

Referring to Table 1 we find Index B for the United States as a whole was 158. This means that the average OAA grant in January 1946 (\$31.06) was 158 per cent of that in January 1938 (\$19.50). It will be observed that the range of values is from 105 for Colorado to 357 for Mississippi. Since Index A for Colorado was 133 one can infer from comparison of the indexes A and B that Colorado must have stood very high among the states in its average grant in 1938. Reference to Table 2 shows its average grant in January 1938 was more than \$6.00 higher than that of the next highest state—a fact that helps explain why its rate of increase as shown by Index B was the lowest of any state.

Observing that Index A for Mississippi was 52 while Index B was 357, one can infer that its grant in 1938 must have been very low for such a high rate of increase not to have brought it closer to the national average. Referring to Table 2 we find that its

TABLE 2. DATA EMPLOYED IN THE CONSTRUCTION OF INDEX NUMBERS

State	Average O.A.A. Grant		Per Capita Income	
	Jan. 1938	Jan. 1946	1937	1945
U. S.	\$19.50	\$31.06	\$561	\$1,150
Ala.	10.95	15.66	256	700
Ariz.	25.29	38.74	482	918
Ark.	9.16	16.67	249	654
Calif.	32.99	47.46	769	1,480
Colo.	39.60	41.46	532	1,100
Conn.	26.12	39.80	808	1,449
Del.	10.82	18.17	795	1,381
Fla.	15.63	29.73	445	996
Ga.	9.71	11.77	301	745
Ida.	21.59	32.49	444	1,054
Ill.	17.02	33.31	691	1,360
Ind.	16.06	26.11	508	1,152
Ia.	19.78	33.00	434	1,109
Kans.	18.90	30.30	430	1,113
Ky.	9.56	11.61	325	735
La.	9.95	23.15	346	785
Me.	21.92	30.39	490	1,051
Md.	17.53	28.32	635	1,212
Mass.	27.80	45.21	737	1,321
Mich.	18.97	32.96	659	1,212
Minn.	19.72	32.78	500	1,061
Miss.	4.53	16.17	207	556
Mo.	13.96	26.51	488	1,003
Mont.	20.42	32.17	541	1,172
Nebr.	16.94	31.88	412	1,117
Nev.	27.45	38.65	733	1,243
N. H.	22.46	30.55	562	971
N. J.	18.12	32.70	750	1,373
N. M.	12.51	30.96	353	812
N. Y.	24.00	38.38	861	1,505
N. C.	9.29	13.74	312	732
N. D.	16.89	34.10	333	1,123
Ohio.	23.08	31.07	646	1,289
Okl.	15.06	35.23	358	889
Ore.	21.43	38.72	552	1,266
Penn.	21.72	30.69	629	1,199
R. I.	18.41	34.66	714	1,268
S. C.	10.85	15.91	262	663
S. D.	18.45	26.60	306	1,083
Tenn.	13.44	16.17	311	813
Tex.	13.71	24.60	409	917
Utah.	25.56	38.92	459	1,023
Vt.	14.19	23.45	493	1,023
Va.	—	15.17	405	963
Wash.	23.23	52.67	597	1,407
W. Va.	13.98	16.84	417	839
Wis.	20.01	30.27	510	1,161
Wyo.	21.22	39.00	560	1,096

Sources: *Social Security Bulletin*, March 1938, March 1946; *Survey of Current Business*, August 1946.

average grant of \$4.53 in January 1938 was less than half that of the next lowest state,

while its average grant in January 1946 (\$16.17) was higher than that of several other states.

Index C. This answers the question: Have increases in OAA grants kept pace with increases in per capita income for the general population? This index in Table 1 shows for each state the per cent that the average grant in January 1946 was of the amount required for it to be as large relative to the state's per capita income in 1945 as the grant was in January 1938 relative to per capita income in 1937.

Data on per capita income by states provide what appears to be the best single available estimate of ability to pay the costs involved in social security programs. More exact estimates of relative ability to pay would need to take account of a number of other factors, but per capita income would remain a major one.

How close is the relationship between per capita income and average OAA grants by states? The zero order correlation coefficient between per capita incomes in 1945 and OAA grants in January 1946 was found to be +.72 while the comparable correlation coefficient between OAA grants in January 1938 and income in 1937 was +.61. This indicates that variations between the states in average OAA grants in 1946 were more nearly in accord with variations in per capita income than they were in 1938. A coefficient of .72 means that slightly over one-half of the variability between the states in OAA grants can be accounted for mathematically by recorded differences in their per capita incomes. It is interesting to speculate as to what factors account for the remaining variability between the states in average OAA grants, as, for example, upon how large a part is played by differences in social attitudes toward the OAA program.

Index C for the United States as a whole stood at 78 in January 1946. This means that the average OAA grant for the nation as a whole was only 78 per cent of the amount required for increases in OAA grants to have kept pace with increases in national income between 1938 and 1946. Conversely, it means

that the average OAA grant of \$19.50 in January 1938 provided recipients with an amount closer to the income level of the general population than did the average grant of \$31.06 in January 1946.

It will be observed from Table 1 that in only four states—Louisiana, Mississippi, New Mexico, and Rhode Island—did the rate of increase in average OAA grants between 1938 and 1946 exceed the rate of increase in the state's per capita income. The range of *Index C* is from 49 for Georgia to 133 for Mississippi. The latter figure means that Mississippi's average grant was one-third higher in relation to per capita income than it had been in 1938.

Index D. This answers the question: Is the average grant in a given state as large, relative to the state's per capita income, as is the average grant for the U.S. as a whole, relative to national per capita income?

To arrive at these index values, the average OAA grant for the U.S. in January 1946 was expressed as a percentage of national per capita income in 1945. Next, the per capita income for each state was multiplied by the percentage obtained above, yielding a set of values for the individual states showing amounts required in January 1946 for average grants to represent the same proportion of per capita income from state to state as was found for the nation as a whole. Finally, the actual average grants in each state were divided by the standard amounts obtained in the preceding step, and the quotients were multiplied by 100.

This series of index values is based on per capita income in the year preceding the grant rather than on income data for the same year, for the following reasons. First, it is evident that changes in per capita income are not immediately reflected in average OAA grants but rather that some experience with a changed income level in the general population is needed to predispose board members, legislators, and the general public to raise or reduce levels of assistance in keeping with changes in the general income level. Secondly, basing the index on per capita income in the same year would result in a delay of from

eight to twenty months in computing the index, since annual data on per capita income by states are not immediately available at the end of a calendar year, but are likely to be ready shortly after the middle of the following year.

Returning to Table 1, we find that the range of Index D in January 1946 was from 49 for Delaware to 156 for Arizona. This indicates that the latter state provided an average grant slightly more than three times as high in relation to the state's per capita income as did the former state.

Index D when plotted on a map of the United States brings out clearly certain regional patterns of payment in relation to per capita income as they existed in 1946. The highest levels of payment in relation to per capita income were found in a cluster of five states in the Southwest: Arizona, Oklahoma, Utah, New Mexico, and Colorado. Similarly those with lowest index values—under 75—are in a cluster in the Southeast comprising the states of Delaware, Georgia, Kentucky, Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and West Virginia. The Rocky Mountain and Pacific States all yield indexes above 100. Of the 22 states having indexes under 100, all but four are east of the Mississ-

sippi. The New England States, with the exception of Vermont, had levels of OAA payment consistently above 100. The belt of industrial states extending from Illinois and Wisconsin to New York and New Jersey had indexes lying within the range 84 to 101, averaging slightly lower than those for the nation as a whole. The Southern States were mixed in their indexes, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Florida having indexes above 100 while Georgia, Alabama, and South Carolina had index values under 100.

SUMMARY

The four indexes presented in this article are intended to facilitate analysis of trends in social security payments and to assist in the study of regional patterns of payment. They have been applied to the OAA program, but could readily be computed for the ADC and AB programs also. Two of the indexes relate payments to per capita income by states as a rough measure of ability to pay. These indexes are simple relative values termed "index numbers" for convenience, although they do not share all of the characteristics that economists have in mind when they use the term in a strict sense.

LIVING ARRANGEMENTS OF UNATTACHED PERSONS*

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SOCIAL problems receive differing degrees of attention from those who are affected by them and from the general public. The seriousness of the problem—measured either by the number of persons affected or by the degree of the need—is not necessarily an index of the amount of interest in the problem. This paper will describe a social problem—the inadequacy of housing for unattached persons—and suggest its degree of seriousness. This problem is not being given the degree of public or expert attention that would seem to be merited by

its seriousness, although the closely-related problem of housing for families is being given a large amount of public and expert attention. A companion article¹ will describe the variations in interest in the problem for the unattached and attempt to get at some of the reasons for the variations and the general lack of interest. By means of these two articles, we hope to demonstrate the lack of correlation between the existence of a social problem and the amount of interest in it.

In 1940 there were at least 12,285,000

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¹ Entitled "Interest in the Living Arrangements of the Unattached."

unattached persons in the United States.² They constituted about 9.3 per cent of the total population, or about 14.2 per cent of the population 20 years of age and over. It is probable that there were many more unattached persons during the depths of the depression in the 1930's (when it was estimated that there were 1½ million homeless, mostly unattached),³ and in the midst of the war boom of the 1940's (when it was estimated that 30 to 50 per cent of those who migrated to boom cities were at least temporarily unattached).⁴ For the purposes of this paper, an unattached person will be regarded as one who does not have parents, collateral families, spouse, or children living with him and who has not joined an institution which incidentally provides living arrangements. Although this definition is occasionally unsatisfactory in deciding whether certain marginal persons are unattached or not, it is the one used because it is desired to examine the living arrangements of those persons in urban American society who do not live either as a member of a family or in an institutional home.

The existence of large numbers of unattached persons is a modern phenomenon, a consequence of the Industrial Revolution that came to England in the late 18th century and to the United States in the middle of the 19th century. The requirements of industry and the attractions of cities, as well as the relative inability of rural areas to support all the persons born in them, brought unprecedented numbers of single, young

people from farms to cities, and from small cities to large cities.⁵ Most of them ultimately got married, but for awhile they were unattached, and some never got married at all (almost 10 per cent of the population never gets married).⁶ A special type of these migrants were those who emigrated from Europe: beginning with the new immigration from southern and eastern Europe about 1880, the proportion of unattached immigrants rapidly rose until immigration was all but cut off by the first World War and the restrictive laws of 1921 and 1924.⁷ The Industrial Revolution also brought the business cycle and increased seasonal and casual employment.⁸ Since these had the social effect of reducing the marriage rate and breaking up families, they irregularly increased the number of unattached.⁹ There are other miscellaneous types of unattached whose numbers were relatively stable: the "homeless men," the temporarily unattached (including some travelling salesmen), and some prostitutes.

Although large numbers of unattached persons have been in American cities for almost a hundred years, few suitable living arrangements for the bulk of them have de-

² John H. Clapham, *An Economic History of Modern Britain* (Cambridge, England: University Press, 1926), esp. chapters 2 and 14. Adna F. Weber, *The Growth of Cities in the Nineteenth Century* (New York: Columbia University, 1899), esp. chapters III-VI.

³ U. S. Bureau of the Census, *Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940. Population*, Vol. IV, Part I (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943), p. 17.

⁴ Marcus L. Hansen, *The Immigrant in American History* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1940), p. 150. Caroline F. Ware, "Immigration," *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*, VII (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1932), 587-594.

⁵ Karl Pribram, "Unemployment," *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*, XV (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1935), 147-162, (esp. pp. 147-148, 152).

⁶ Samuel A. Stouffer and Paul F. Lazarsfeld, *Research Memorandum on the Family in the Depression* (New York: Social Science Research Council, 1937), pp. 130-186. Robert C. Angell, *The Family Encounters the Depression* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936). Ruth S. Cavan and Katherine H. Ranck, *The Family and the Depression* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938).

² This figure includes lodgers in private households, one-person families, members of quasi households (such as lodging houses and hotels), servants and hired hands living in private households. The figure is a minimum estimate because it does not include related persons living with families (no matter how remote the relationship), those who had no place of residence at all, transients who were unknown to their neighbors and thus were missed by the Census.

³ John N. Webb, *The Transient Unemployed* (Washington: Works Progress Administration, 1935), pp. 1-3, 12, 88-93.

⁴ Howard B. Myers, "Defense Migration and Labor Supply," *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 37 (March, 1942), 75.

veloped. The "Y's," the Eleanor Clubs, the Arlington Farms, and other organized residences built to meet their housing needs serve only a small proportion of the unattached. Most of the unattached live in what might be termed the cast-offs among residences: they live in rooming houses or lodging houses that have been converted from family residences; they live in spare rooms rented out in family homes. The problem can be conceived of as one of cultural lag. It would seem that society still considers the condition of being unattached as either a temporary or an unusual condition. This would help to explain the fact that few residence structures, with the exception of hotels that are usually too expensive for permanent residence, have been built to meet the special needs of the unattached, either by private capital or by the federal government. It has been shown, by the example of the Mills' Hotels in New York City, as well as by other lodging houses built about the same time in other cities, that even the cheap lodging house can be made adequate for the residents and profitable for the owners. But although the Mills' Hotels are over 40 years old, practically no other private capital has entered the field of building houses for the unattached poor, and not much more for those unattached who earn fairly good wages and salaries. There are some exceptions, of course, but apparently even most of these date back to pre-World War I days, and many have a philanthropic motive behind them. The federal government has, during the last fifteen years, concerned itself with clearing slums and providing adequate housing for the underprivileged, especially in cities. But, until the need for labor in war industries practically forced the government to start building dormitories in 1942, it paid no attention to the housing needs of the unattached in cities.¹⁰ This was true even

when the well-motivated slum-clearance projects drove lodgers out of family households and razed rooming houses. City planners and students of housing have tended to ignore the unattached in their studies and plans for the past 25 years.¹¹ All these facts suggest that there is a blind spot in the thinking of the experts as well as of the general public when it comes to the housing of the unattached.

The income of the average unattached person is half to two-thirds as large as that of the average whole family,¹² and if the indigent unattached were eliminated from consideration, and age of income earners held constant, this discrepancy would be even less. Further, since families always have more than one member, and usually not all the members are income-earning, the average family member has only a little over one-third the income available to him of the average unattached person (\$411 compared to \$1151 in 1935-36).¹³ Considering these facts, the income of the average unattached person could not be said to be so relatively low that he could not afford adequate housing.

At any given income level, the average unattached person spends a greater proportion of his income for housing than does the average family.¹⁴ The average urban tenant family paid a monthly rent of \$25.22 in 1940, while the average urban tenant person living by himself paid \$19.47.¹⁵ Considering what the unattached person got for his money, and the smaller number of his needs

¹⁰ Unpublished manuscript by the author, "Interest in the Living Arrangements of the Unattached."

¹¹ National Resources Committee, *Consumer Incomes in the United States, Their Distribution in 1935-36* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938), pp. 4, 18. U. S. Bureau of the Census, *Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940. Population and Housing, Families, Income and Rent* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943), p. 9.

¹² National Resources Committee, *op. cit.*, pp. 4, 18.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 30.

¹⁴ U. S. Bureau of the Census, *Sixteenth Census, Population and Housing, op. cit.*, p. 9.

¹⁰ The federal government through C.C.C. camps and F.S.A. labor camps, did provide some very inexpensive barracks for certain types of unattached persons in rural areas during the 1930's. Also the government entered the housing field briefly during the first World War to build some temporary barracks for unattached war workers.

that could be satisfied by his housing (for example, he can seldom have food preparation, laundering, sociable amusement, minor recreation, carried on in his one room that families can have in their homes or apartments), the rent for unattached persons could be said to be relatively high. Available studies¹⁶ of rooming houses—taken as the currently single most important form of living arrangement for self-supporting unattached persons—show that the furniture in furnished rooms is often cheap and insufficient, the sanitary facilities are frequently outmoded and insufficient, the presence of vermin is frequent, the rooms are often not kept clean, there are seldom any common rooms or other facilities for the entertainment of guests. These facts make the relatively high rents for furnished rooms seem even higher. The greater turnover of population in furnished rooms also does not justify high rents, since vacancies are of shorter duration in furnished rooms than they are in unfurnished apartments for families, so that the vacancy rates per year are about the same.¹⁷ Alternative explanations do not seem to stand up therefore, and we are obliged to seek the conditioning factors of inadequate living arrangements for the unattached in lack of public and expert interest or knowledge.

The actual living arrangements for the unattached can best be considered under the

three historical types of unattached persons who made most use of them, the immigrants, the hoboes and other indigents, and the native-born, self-supporting migrants to cities. Unattached immigrants lived mainly as roomers and boarders in the homes of families of their own nationality. Other living arrangements developed logically out of this: The boarding boss system was one in which a single man or a couple took in boarders as a business. The cooperative non-family group was one in which a number of unattached persons got together to rent a house or apartment, buy furniture and hire a house-keeper (or sometimes do their housekeeping themselves). The labor camp had a boarding boss system where the "boss" was an employee of the company rather than an independent entrepreneur. Mainly for immigrant women, there were charitable or semi-charitable boarding homes sponsored by religious, ethnic, or philanthropic groups. Immigrants also lived in regular lodging, boarding and rooming houses. There were grave inadequacies in all these types of living arrangements, the most important of which were extreme overcrowding, poor sanitary facilities and lack of cleanliness, invasion of the privacy of families, and lack of opportunity for recreation and social contact. After the laws restricting immigration were passed in the early 1920's, the number of foreign-born in the United States began to decline, and the proportion of unattached declined still more rapidly, so that their living arrangements are no longer a major problem. A similar problem exists today, however, for Negroes who have migrated from the rural South to the urban North.

The chief type of residence for unattached "homeless men" and the unemployed is the common lodging house. Although some of these call themselves "hotels" they are very cheap, and are the poorest form of living arrangements for the unattached. Most of them can be classified under one of three types: the room-type lodging house (where several beds are put in a single room, which is otherwise like a room in a rooming house), the cell-type lodging house (where each

¹⁶ See, for example: (1) Community Service Society, "Life in One Room," mimeographed report by the Committee on Housing, Community Service Society (New York, 1940). (2) Information Bureau on Women's Work, Toledo, *Rooms, Inquire Within* (Toledo, Ohio: 1927). (3) James Ford, *Slums and Housing* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1936). (4) Edith Abbott, *The Tenements of Chicago: 1908-1935* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936). Many other sources, most of them written before World War I, are available on the characteristics of rooming houses.

¹⁷ Chicago Plan Commission and Work Projects Administration, *Residential Chicago*, Vol. I of the *Chicago Land Use Survey* (Chicago Plan Commission, 1942), pp. 232-234. Although these data were not published until 1942, they were collected in 1938—before the war housing shortage.

lodger has his own small cell, very scantily furnished and not separated at their tops from similar cubicles), the "flophouse" (which is usually simply a bare room where lodgers sleep on boards, sometimes covered with thin mattresses and sometimes with piles of rags or newspapers). In addition to the common commercial lodging house, there are the model lodging houses built by philanthropists (the Mills' Hotels, for example), the missions sponsored by religious groups, and municipal lodging houses built by cities for men and women who are completely without funds. These indigent persons devise all sorts of other living quarters for themselves: they sleep in taverns, in all-night movies and restaurants, in police stations, on park benches, in doorways and hallways, in vacant lots and abandoned buildings. During the depression of the 1930's, they even built whole villages, commonly called "Shantytowns," for themselves in public grounds. Among the unemployed during the depression, families were better off than unattached persons, since they were less often evicted and more often supported in their homes by relief payments.

Single young people who came from rural areas to cities to earn their living and make their fortunes in expanding commerce and industry at first lived in boarding houses. These were usually quite adequate to satisfy the social and recreational needs of a home for the unattached as well as their physical needs (for a place to sleep, eat and do laundering). But these did not have enough flexibility with respect to time for eating and coming home at night, and did not have enough privacy, to be popular. When the restaurant and the rooming house came into existence, the boarding house declined, until by the year 1900 they were very few in number in large cities.

Living in rooming houses, or as a roomer in a family home, is now the most popular form of living arrangement for unattached persons. Most of the available evidence indicates that rents in rooming houses are high for the services rendered, and that furniture and other facilities tend to be inadequate.

The unattached person who comes from a given social level or who has a given income sinks a step or two in the quality of furniture he uses when he lives in a rooming house rather than in a family home. The roomer in a family home, on the other hand, has as wide a variety of quality in his living quarters as families do, since families of all income levels—except at the very top—take in roomers.

The organized boarding home and the residence club also exhibit a wide variety as far as their quality is concerned, but they are non-profit making and sometimes even partially supported by philanthropic groups so that their rents are not high in comparison to what the renter receives. They have also become more popular in recent decades, since their restrictions have been reduced and since some of them have eliminated the practice of charging for meals whether they are taken or not. Such homes are not numerous, relative to other forms of living arrangements, and the number of rooms in them has not kept pace with the increasing demand. It requires a fairly large accumulation of capital to build and maintain an organized boarding home or residence club.

Insofar as private capital has gone into providing housing for the unattached, it has gone into the building of hotels. Hotels are not for the unattached alone, of course, but cater in large measure to transients and moderately well-to-do families. Hotels provide a fairly satisfactory living arrangement for high salaried unattached persons, but they are too expensive as a permanent residence for the bulk of the unattached. A development of the last several decades, which combines some of the desirable features of both the hotel and the family home, is the apartment hotel. Is it used by unattached persons as well as by families. The apartment hotel also tends to be expensive and sometimes requires a high initial outlay of money for furniture and other household essentials.

The rooming house and the lodging house, which together provide housing for a very large proportion of unattached persons, are

usually converted structures.¹⁸ That is, they were originally constructed to serve functions other than those which they are now serving. Few, if any, buildings are built with the intention of making rooming houses out of them. Thus, rooming houses tend to be old buildings, and not always suited for their purpose. Their sanitary facilities are old-fashioned and perhaps worn out. The rooms are not spaced properly for individual living. There may be no fire exit, and if there is one it is likely to be through someone's private room, which is usually kept locked. In various other ways, the rooming house in a converted structure is an undesirable place to live.

The most rapidly growing cities, region of country held constant, are the ones which have the largest proportions of unattached. Rapidly growing cities have many advantages, but their housing facilities probably tend to be insufficient in number. The areas within a city in which the unattached can find furnished rooms tend to be the poorest ones. They are areas from which upper and middle class families have moved, and which industry and commerce are invading. Or they are along noisy arteries of transportation. The areas of Chicago in which the unattached are concentrated have been found by correlation,¹⁹ to be areas of economic blight, of

¹⁸ The rank-order correlation, for the community areas of Chicago, between the proportion of units in converted structures and the proportion of roomers in the population is + .69.

¹⁹ Coefficients of rank-order correlation, for the community areas of Chicago, have been worked out between each of the indicated characteristics and the proportion of roomers in the population. The data have been taken from a variety of sources: (1) Chicago Plan Commission and Work Projects Administration, *Residential Chicago*, Vol. I of the *Chicago Land Use Survey* (Chicago, 1942); (2) Arthur J. Todd et al, *The Chicago Recreation Survey, 1937* (Chicago: The Chicago Recreation Commission, 1937); (3) U. S. Bureau of the Census, *Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940, Population and Housing: Chicago, Ill.* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942); (4) Chicago Department of Health, *Health Data Book* (Chicago: Dept. of Health, 1939), pp. 85-86; (5) R. E. L. Faris and H. W. Dunham, *Mental Disorders in Urban Areas* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938), Appendix B.

commercial and industrial invasion, of old structures in poor condition, of dwelling units lacking such facilities as inside bathrooms and central heat, of overcrowded residences owned by absentee landlords. These areas also have well-defined social characteristics: relatively few children in the population, a high sex ratio, proximity to red light districts, high venereal disease rate, high schizophrenia rate. Thus, the areas are characterized by a high degree of social disorganization to which the unattached contribute after they have been there a while. They have two main advantages for the residents: (1) They tend to be near most of the places of work. (2) They tend to be near the centers of amusement,²⁰ and have characteristic service institutions which especially cater to the needs of the unattached.

World War II increased the disadvantages of unattached living. The pressure on living quarters for the unattached increased so markedly that they were living in all the odd corners that unemployed men found for themselves during the depression of the previous decade.²¹ The federal government belatedly went into the field of building housing for the unattached 15 months after it began on war housing for families.²² But the dormitories were insufficient in number,²³ and generally not nearly as adequate as the war housing built for families. Private owners of furnished rooms raised rents markedly for the unattached, despite O.P.A. price ceilings because the O.P.A. could not adequately

²⁰ The rooming house areas in Chicago (1937) have a disproportionately large number of liquor establishments, billiard halls, cabarets, penny arcades, movie theatres. They have a low number of bowling alleys and dance halls.

²¹ Lyonel C. Florant, "The Impact of the War on the Norfolk Negro Community," (Unpublished manuscript, Richmond: Population Study, Virginia State Planning Board, May 26, 1942). Mary Skinner and Alice S. Nutt, "Adolescents Away from Home," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 236 (November, 1944), 51-59.

²² The Defense Housing Act of October 24, 1940, as amended January 21, 1942.

²³ Unpublished statistics made available through the courtesy of Miss Corinne K. Robinson, National Housing Agency, Federal Public Housing Authority (Letter, August 28, 1942).

police the large number of furnished rooms and because the new rooms or "improved" rooms put on the market were not subject to O.P.A. control for their initial pricing. The O.P.A. even hurt the unattached as far as hotel rooms were concerned, because hotels found it more profitable to charge daily rates rather than weekly rates and so forced their guests to move every 5 days. This situation continues after the war, but, of course, there is an acute shortage of housing for families also.

The over-all picture, then, is one of inadequate living arrangements for the great bulk of the unattached population in American cities. There has been little interest, either on the part of private capital or on the part of the general public (as manifested through government) in remedying the situation. It is not mainly a matter of charity, since most of the unattached have relatively more money than do family heads to spend upon their living quarters. It is largely a matter of getting either government action or of getting private capital together to finance large projects. The new projects can be modeled after the existing residence clubs, if the aim is to provide adequate living arrangements to meet the needs and desires of the unattached. The various occupational groups will need somewhat different facilities.

The very poor among the unattached need housing badly also. It is questionable whether private enterprise would find it profitable to build for this group, although the Mills' Hotels and other philanthropy-sponsored lodging houses built around the turn of the century made regular profits. Today, because of increased building costs and higher land values, housing for hoboes and the unemployed would probably have to be a matter for philanthropic or government support. New building would not be necessary if remodeling went along with conversion of older buildings. It might be that some social service functions should be given along with board and lodging for indigents, in order to increase their capacity for self-support.

Some of the unattached persons themselves will continue to prefer to live in rooming houses, lodging houses, or one of the other forms of living arrangements now predominant. There are aspects of privacy, anonymity, cheapness, about some of these places which they prefer, and certainly no one should try to force them to live elsewhere. But the United States can do what Great Britain had accomplished by the 1920's—give these places a continual and thorough inspection, and require them to meet certain minimum standards of cleanliness and completeness.

OBJECTIVE DIFFERENCES AMONG VARIOUS TYPES OF RESPONDENTS TO A MAILED QUESTIONNAIRE*

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THE ARDENT researcher, in his attempt to reach as many individuals as possible in his investigation, eagerly casts about him for an inexpensive, convenient instrument which will cover as wide an area

as possible, geographically and culturally. Also, he desires to achieve with this instrument a minimum amount of discomfort to himself and to his subjects, from the standpoint of a saving of time and labor. For such reasons, the mail questionnaire has achieved a great deal of popularity in much

* Manuscript received March 20, 1947.

research in the social sciences.¹ It has been widely employed in sociology, psychology, education, religion, economics, and related fields, and has been used both by the wary and the unwary in public opinion surveys.

However, any investigator who undertakes to use the postal card or mailed letter of inquiry as his basic tool for gathering data must beware of certain limitations involved. Aside from questions of reliability, most cautious individuals who have used the mail questionnaire have realized that the matter of *who* returns a questionnaire is a vital one. Notably, the bias of respondents may make or break the validity of the research. In general, as the present study indicates, people who reply to a questionnaire, at least without much subsequent urging, are different from those who do not reply. And there is evidence, too, that those who reply *with* urging differ from those who reply *without* reminder, as well as from those who do not reply at all.

The uniqueness of the present study lies in the fact that it is the first instance, so far as we know, in which an objective measure or test has been applied to individuals all of whom were later to become the subjects of a mailed questionnaire follow-up.

PREVIOUS INVESTIGATIONS

Although not strictly comparable, the experience of others with the mailed questionnaire has a definite bearing on the present study. The principal point of difference is that other investigations referred to below were concerned with returns to a single questionnaire or to a series of repeated questionnaire "waves," whereas the present study

¹ For excellent discussions of the advantages and disadvantages of the mail questionnaire, see: Ruckmick, C. A., "The uses and abuses of the questionnaire procedure," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1930, 14, 32-41.

Harvey, O. L., "The questionnaire as used in recent studies of human sexual behavior," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 1932, 26, 379-389.

Benson, L. E., "Mail surveys can be valuable," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 1946, 10, 234-241.

is concerned with replies to questionnaires submitted on an evenly spaced time limit of one year, for several years in succession. The consensus of other students of the subject is rather striking in revealing biased differences between respondents and non-respondents.

Thus, one investigator,² using follow-up letters or questionnaires containing six simple questions which were sent out to the parents or guardians of delinquent boys, reports that parents were more likely to answer the questionnaire if their report was favorable. Truman Kelley³ noted that he was not likely to get as useful answers to his questionnaire, which was sent to university faculty members, if the recipients held minor positions or one-year tenure.

Frank Stanton,⁴ using a three-page mailed questionnaire which was sent to a representative list of school teachers, inquiring among other things about their possession and use of classroom radio receiving facilities, found that the replies of those respondents who required a follow-up differed markedly from those who made an original reply. There were significantly less who owned a radio in the former group. Similar results were found by another investigator,⁵ employing a questionnaire concerning the use of radio in schools in Ohio. In this instance a sample of non-respondents was followed up. There was a consistent decrease in the percentage of affirmative responses with each succeeding group of respondents in three successive waves; and it was believed that the primary reason for this was lack of interest, i.e., those school principals who were interested in radio in educational work tended to answer and to return the questionnaires more readily.

² Ball, R. J., "The correspondence method in follow-up studies of delinquent boys," *Journal of Juvenile Research*, 1930, 14, 107-113.

³ Kelley, T. L., *Scientific Method*. New York: Macmillan, 1932.

⁴ Stanton, F., "Notes on the validity of mail questionnaire returns," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1939, 23, 95-104.

⁵ Reid, S., "Respondents and non-respondents to mail questionnaires," *Educational Research Bulletin*, The Ohio State University, 1942, 21, 87-96.

An occupational survey⁸ has revealed findings along the same lines. In this study, a questionnaire was sent to 327 technology and chemistry majors who had graduated from a large college. Of the 309 for whom there were sufficient addresses, information was obtained in all but four. The first 184 returns showed only one-half of one percent unemployed, while the next 121 returns showed 5.8% unemployed. Early returns indicated, moreover, that fewer individuals were employed outside of the field of their training in college than those making late returns.

Former college students were followed up in another study,⁹ in which non-respondents were heavily weighted with ex-students who had left at any time prior to completion of nine quarters of academic work. Graduation from the university was also related to return versus non-return. There was also evidence that late return was somewhat prognostic of returns *versus* non-return; that is, those who returned the questionnaire late were more like non-returners than like early returners. Differences between respondents and non-respondents were reported in another investigation¹⁰ on college students. Higher intelligence scores and scholarship, loyalty or ties to the questionnaire sponsor, and a rural background were associated with a positive tendency to respond.

In the field of reader and listener behavior, in magazine and radio research, investigators have found substantially the same pattern concerning the differences between respondents and non-respondents to questionnaires sent by mail. A survey¹¹ was made of (a) a random list of 600 women to discover whether or not they listened to a child-study

program, and (b) a random list of 900 listeners who subscribed to a classical music program bulletin. In both cases differences between the two groups who replied or did not reply to a mailed questionnaire concerning the particular program were ascribed by the authors to familiarity with or interest in the topic under investigation and to the education of the respondent.

Another study¹² reports an attempt to discover for a popular magazine how many readers had ever flown on a commercial airline. Among the first wave of respondents, seventeen per cent reported having flown, whereas only seven per cent of the second wave so reported, indicating that those who were interested in flying were more likely to answer the first time. A recent inquiry,¹³ in which questionnaires were sent out to 3,000 representative subscribers to *Time*, followed up with a personal interview 505 persons who replied and 882 who did not reply. The study showed that mail questionnaires can produce valid samples of comparatively homogeneous groups; but the authors report that statistically significant biases do occur in mail returns and caution that they may be large enough to prejudice generalizations in any survey.

Excellent illustrations of bias in public opinion surveys were presented recently in *The Public Opinion Quarterly*.¹⁴ It was pointed out, for example, that (1) under certain conditions people in the higher income and educational brackets will return mail ballots with consistently greater frequency, (2) a disproportionately greater percentage of people who were strongly opposed to the 1937 Supreme Court "packing" proposal of President Roosevelt made a special point of registering their protest in a mail survey, and (3) the mail ballots used by the Literary Digest in polling the 1936 Presi-

⁸ Shuttleworth, F. K., "Sampling errors involved in incomplete returns to mail questionnaires," *Psychological Bulletin*, 1940, 37, 437.

⁹ Pace, C. R., "Factors influencing questionnaire returns from former university students," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1939, 23, 388-397.

¹⁰ Reuss, C. F., "Differences between persons responding and not responding to a mailed questionnaire," *American Sociological Review*, 1943, 8, 433-438.

¹¹ Suchman, E. A., and McCandless, B., "Who answers questionnaires?" *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1940, 24, 758-769.

¹² Rollis, M., "The practical use of repeated questionnaire waves," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1940, 24, 770-772.

¹³ Franzen, R., and Lazarsfeld, P. F., "The mail questionnaire as a research problem," *Journal of Psychology*, 1945, 20, 239-320.

¹⁴ Benson, L. E., *op. cit.*, ftn. 1.

dential election erred by the amazingly high amount of about twenty per cent because of strong prejudices on the part of the respondents.

Although one investigator¹³ many years ago reported little or no difference between early and late respondents or at least between respondents who needed no inducement to reply and respondents who were induced to reply by means of follow-up letters, the evidence is overwhelmingly in the other direction.

THE PRESENT STUDY

I

As a result of follow-up studies on contestants involved in the First Annual Science Talent Search, an excellent opportunity was provided to study the differences among various types of respondents to mail questionnaires. The First Annual Science Talent Search, held in the spring of 1942, has been described in greater detail elsewhere.¹⁴ Briefly delineated, it was the first in a series of competitions which have been conducted annually in the high schools of the United States by Science Clubs of America, and administered by Science Service. Twelve to fifteen thousand high school seniors have been participating each year for the past six years.

In this first search, to which the data of the present investigation apply, approximately three thousand students completed entries in the contest, which included a series of hurdles described below. Of these students, 40 boys and girls were eventually winners, and 260 were given honorable mention. The proportion of girls to boys selected was the same as the proportion among the participants who submitted complete entrance materials. The forty winners were then brought to Washington, D.C., to compete for the two \$2,400 Westinghouse Grand Science

Scholarships; and other trip winners were awarded from \$100 to \$400 Science Scholarships granted by the Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company.

The selection of outstanding contestants was made by means of the "successive hurdles" method. These hurdles were set up as follows:

1. *Science Aptitude Examination.* This was to select those who had the aptitude to study science in colleges, but the examination did not place too heavy a premium on previous knowledge of science.¹⁵

2. *High-school Record.* A transcript of the high-school record was required and also a statement of the contestant's rank in the senior class.

3. *Score on the Recommendations Furnished by High-school Teachers.*¹⁶

4. *Essay Rating*—Each contestant was required to write an essay of fixed length on the subject, "How Science Can Help Win the War."

Two further hurdles were applied only to the forty trip winners, in order to furnish additional information to aid in the selection of top scholarship winners. These hurdles were:

5. *Personal Interview.* A standardized psychological interview conducted by each of three independent interviewers was used to rate certain traits.

6. *Social Attitudes Test.*

All contestants were exposed to the first hurdle, the Science Aptitude Examination. Those who survived this hurdle went on to the second, or evaluation of their high-school record; those who survived the second went on to the third; survivors of the third went on to the fourth, etc. Thus, three classes of contestants emerged, which, in this study, will be referred to as Winners, Honorable Mentions, and Others (the "also rans").

A definite plan was developed for an annual follow-up by means of a questionnaire sent out by Science Service to all those who submitted full credentials. An exception was made so that, if an individual did not reply

¹³ Toops, H. A., "The returns from follow-up letters to questionnaires," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1926, 10, 92-101.

¹⁴ Edgerton, H. A., and Britt, S. H., "The first annual Science Talent Search," *American Scientist*, 1943, 31, 55-68.

¹⁵ Edgerton, H. A., and Britt, S. H., "Some technical aspects of the Fourth Annual Science Talent Search," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 1947 7, 3-21.

¹⁶ Compare Edgerton, H. A., and Britt, S. H., "The science talent search," *Occupations*, 1943, 22, 177-180.

for the first two years in succession, he was dropped from the follow-up inquiry.

Questionnaire returns of all male contestants were made the subject of a special study, largely because the girls were comparatively few in number. The results for the first three years of follow-up of the 1942 male contestants for all three groups or classes of contestants are presented in Table 1. The original number of boys for whom complete entries had been submitted was 2,460, of whom 31 were Winners, 203 were Honorable Mentions, and 2,226 were Others.

drop 15% the next two years, while the Others drop at least 24%.

It should be noted here, though, that the latter group would suffer somewhat more by the procedure adopted above, namely, ceasing any inquiry if the individual did not reply after the first two years. Yet it cannot be gainsaid that the major drop, evidenced in Table 1 and Figure 1, is from the first to the second years, rather than from the second to the third.

It will also be observed in Table 1 that the significances of the percentage differences

TABLE 1. NUMBER AND PERCENTAGES OF RETURNS OF QUESTIONNAIRES FOR THREE YEARS FOR THREE GROUPS OF CONTESTANTS IN THE FIRST ANNUAL SCIENCE TALENT SEARCH

Group	Number	Percentage	Difference Percentage	Critical Ratios
<i>First Follow-Up Year (1943)</i>				
a. Winners.....	30	96.8	3.7	1.03 (a vs. b)
b. Honorable Mentions.....	189	93.1	12.9	6.92 (b vs. c)
c. Others.....	1,786	80.2		
<i>Second Follow-Up Year (1944)</i>				
d. Winners.....	30	96.8	11.1	2.82 (d vs. e)
e. Honorable Mentions.....	174	85.7	23.1	9.20 (e vs. f)
f. Others.....	1,394	62.6		
<i>Third Follow-Up Year (1945)</i>				
g. Winners.....	31	100.0	21.2	7.93 (g vs. h)
h. Honorable Mentions.....	160	78.8	22.4	7.79 (h vs. i)
i. Others.....	1,257	56.5		

Figure 1 presents the data of Table 1 in graphic form. A striking fact immediately observable both from Table 1 and Figure 1 is that the winning contestants make almost perfect returns for each of the three follow-up years. The Honorable Mentions group makes the next largest percentage of returns, but even for this group the percentage falls off from 93% the first year to 86% the second, and finally, to 79% the last year. The Others have the lowest percentage of returns in all three years; but the losses each year are much more severe, dropping from 80% the first year to 63% the second year to 56% the third year. In other words, while the Winners maintain a relatively perfect percentage of return, the Honorable Mentions

(critical ratios) are all exceedingly high, except the first. A critical ratio of 2.56 is significant at the one per cent level, and all except the first of the figures in the last column above satisfy this criterion.

The reasons for the above findings may at best be conjectured. However, it is logical to believe that because of closer ties with the sponsors of the contest on the part of the Winners, they would make almost perfect returns. The Honorable Mentions, basking in somewhat diminished glory, reply with less frequency, and the Others, to whom the competition yielded nothing but experience, feel even a lesser impulse to reply. Mingled with the matter of cash award or perhaps even with an honorable mention is perhaps a

sense of obligation, and this also would appear to be in a descending gradient from Winners to Others. Not to be discounted, as a third possibility, is the willingness on the part of the superior individuals to cooperate with what is obviously a research program. In other words, having displayed superior scientific talents, it may at least be hoped

Aptitude Examination scores and what they would reveal concerning various types of respondents among the male contestants who had participated in the First Annual Science Talent Search. The Aptitude Examination score was used for two reasons. In the first place, it is the only measure which was available for all contestants, since it was the

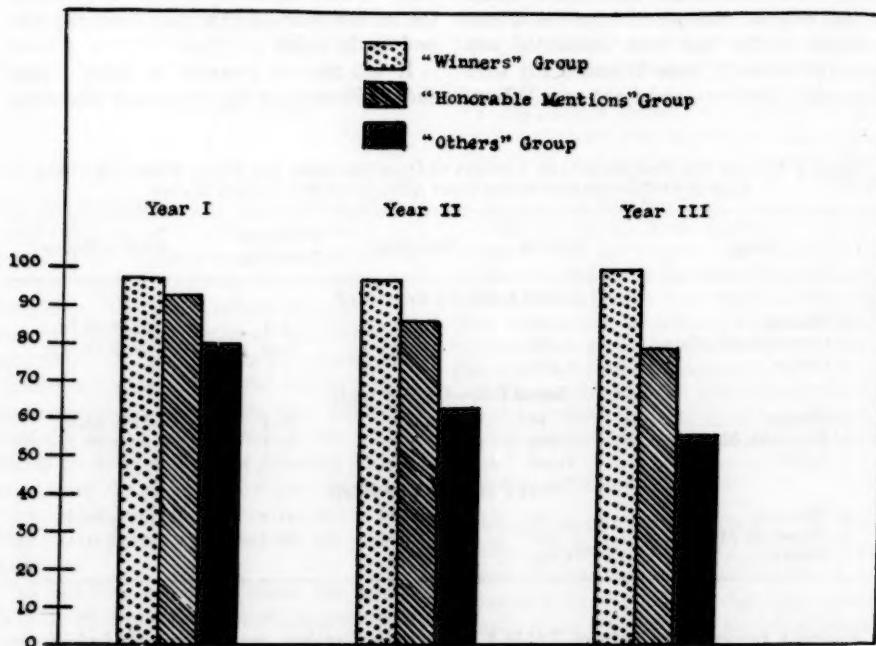


FIGURE 1. Percentage of Returns for the Three Groups for Three Years.

that they are imbued with a more intense scientific zeal. This would, quite naturally, lead them to make more frequent reply. Whatever the reason, the results are entirely consistent with the findings of those investigations, previously cited, which have reported interest in the subject of inquiry as a distinguishing feature between respondents and non-respondents.

II

A separate investigation was also undertaken in this study concerning the Science

first hurdle in the competition. Secondly, it is undoubtedly the most valid, and by far the most objective measure used in the contest.

To make this investigation, only the Others group was studied. This was done not only because they were a large enough group, but also because, as indicated in Table 1, the superior groups tended to return the questionnaires more faithfully. Hence, year-to-year variations were not marked among them. Another disadvantage in studying the superior groups, Winners and Honorable

Mentions, is that their test scores had very little range, since the cutting score or level for boys for the first hurdle was only fourteen errors on the Examination. In other words, on the 100-item test, all the Winners and Honorable Mentions had a score of 86 or better. The Others had possibilities of scores from 30 to 100. (No one, male or female, scored less than 26 among the 3,175 original

- b. Those who replied the first year only, which group was termed (1).
- c. Those who answered the first and second years only, termed (1,2).
- d. Those who answered the first, second, and third years only (1,2,3).
- e. Those who answered all four years (1, 2, 3, 4).
- f. Those who answered the second year only (2).

TABLE 2. VARIOUS TYPES OF RETURNS WITH RELATED SIGNIFICANT STATISTICS ON SCIENCE APTITUDE EXAMINATION SCORES

	Critical Ratios					Mean Aptitude Score	S. D.	No. of Cases
	(o)	(1)	(1, 2)	(1, 2, 3)	(1, 2, 3, 4)			
A. "Successive" Returns								
a. No return at all (o)	—	0.7	3.5	5.4	6.6	69.5	12.4	183
b. First year only (1)	0.7	—	3.1	5.3	6.8	70.3	12.4	278
c. 1st, 2nd years (1, 2)	3.5	3.1	—	1.1	1.7	74.2	11.8	135
d. 1st, 2nd, 3rd years (1, 2, 3)	5.4	5.3	1.1	—	0.6	75.6	11.1	292
e. 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th years (1, 2, 3, 4)	6.6	6.8	1.7	0.6	—	76.0	10.4	723
			(2)	(2, 3)	(2, 3, 4)			
f. Second year only (2)		—	0.3	1.1		75.3	11.0	46
g. 2nd, 3rd years (2, 3)	0.3	—	1.0			76.0	8.7	20
h. 2nd, 3rd, 4th years (2, 3, 4)	1.1	1.0	—			78.5	13.5	28
	None	One	Two	Three	Four			
B. "Number" Returns								
i. None (o)	—	1.4	4.3	5.3	6.6	69.5	12.4	183
j. One (1) (2)	1.4	—	3.5	4.6	6.3	71.0	12.5	324
k. Two (1, 2) (1, 3) (1, 4) (2, 3) (2, 4)	4.3	3.5	—	0.8	2.2	74.3	11.7	320
l. Three (1, 2, 3) (1, 2, 4) (1, 3, 4) (2, 3, 4)	5.3	4.6	0.8	—	1.6	75.0	11.6	492
m. Four (1, 2, 3, 4)	6.6	6.3	2.2	1.6	—	76.0	10.4	723
C. "Early vs. Late" Returns								
n. Early returns					Critical ratio = 1.4	76.2	10.4	620
o. Late returns						74.8	10.4	103

entrants for whom complete materials were submitted.) In addition, a fourth year of follow-up was available on the Others at the time this study was being made, whereas only three years of data were available on the other two groups because their questionnaires were being microfilmed.

The returns on the Others group were first broken down into year-categories as follows:

- a. Those who made no reply at all, which group was called (o).

- g. Those who answered the second and third years only (2,3).
- h. Those who answered the second, third, and fourth years (2,3,4).
- i. Those who answered the first and third years (1,3).
- j. Those who answered the first, second, and fourth years (1,2,4).
- k. Those who answered the first and fourth years (1,4).
- l. Those who answered the first, third, and fourth years (1,3,4).
- m. Those who answered the second and fourth years (2,4).

No data were available on the third year only, third and fourth combined, or fourth alone, because as stated above, questionnaires were not sent out to those who had not responded in the first two years.

A sample of 103 cases of late returns in

years and then stop, who return the first three years successively and stop, and who return it regularly for four years. In the same way data on succession are shown in the second half of Part A on differences among individuals who return the question-

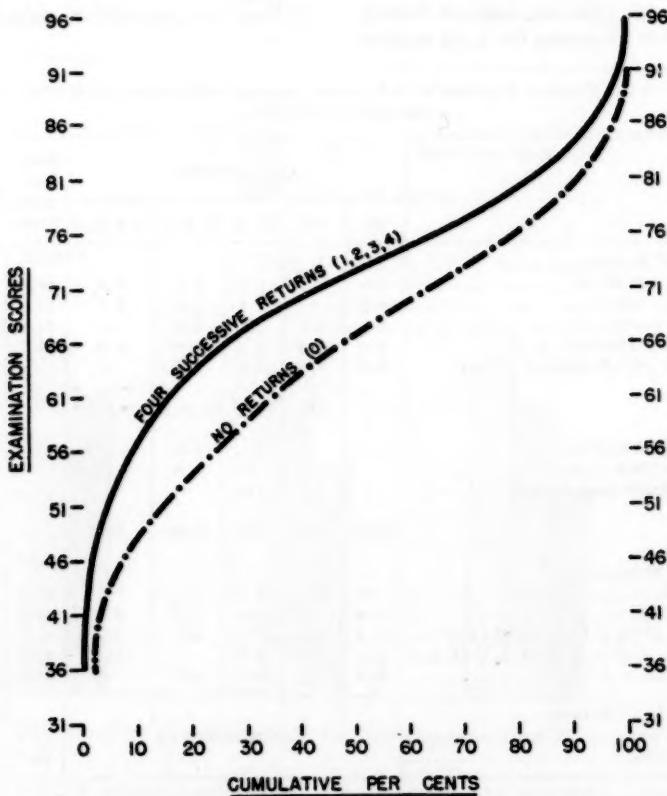


FIGURE 2.—Ogive Curves Illustrating the Difference Between Those Who Make No Return and Those Who Respond Four Successive Years.

the fourth year, i.e., returns brought in by a follow-up letter, was also available. All the data on various types of returns with related tests of significance are presented in Table 2.

Table 2 has three parts. Part A, representing "Successive Returns" gives data concerning succession, or differences among individuals who return the questionnaire the first year only and stop, who return the first two

naire the second year and stop, and who return only the second and third years and stop, and who return only the last three years.

Part B concerns the frequency with which any individual respondent replies, disregarding succession. In other words, attention here is centered on the number of times the returns are made, whether never, once,

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thrice, or four times. Hence, the designation "Number" returns is used.

Part C reports the difference between the early and late returners, using the small sample of 103 cases of late return from the fourth year only.

Analysis of the data of Table 2 reveals that, generally speaking, if individuals continue to reply faithfully to the questionnaire year after year for four years they tend to be superior on the Science Aptitude Examination to those who had made no reply or who were less conscientious and replied only the first year, or the first and second, or the first, second, and third years. The mean test score rises gradually from 69.5 for those who never made any reply to 70.3 for those who replied only the first year, to 74.2 for those who replied the first two years, to 75.6 for those who replied three years in succession, to 76.0 for those who responded all four years. The individual who replies regularly, in other words, is superior by almost seven points on the average to the individual who did not make any reply. The mean test score for all male contestants, including Honorable Mentions and Winners, was 75.3,¹⁷ and it is interesting that those who replied regularly for four years have a mean score of 76.0. The trend of rising scores is even more marked for the few cases in the second part of Part A of Table 1, the mean score rising from 75.3 for those who answered the second year only to 78.5 for those answering the second, third, and fourth years.

The critical ratios indicate an extremely high degree of significance of difference between the means of those who make no reply at all, and those who reply with any greater degree of succession than only once. The critical ratio between the means of those who answer the first year only and stop (1) and those who answer the first two years only and stop (1, 2) is highly significant. Other significances (between 1,2, and 1,2,3, and between 1,2,3, and 1,2,3,4) are not so high, but if comparison is made between (1) and

(1,2,3) we have a critical ratio of 5.3; and between (1) and (1,2,3,4) the critical ratio is 6.8. Both of these ratios are highly significant.

Figure 2 shows the difference between individuals who make four successive returns and those who make no return. The ogive curve for the former group is consistently higher than the same curve for the latter.

As regards the number of replies, Part B of Table 2 indicates a rising mean value of the Science Aptitude Examination score in relationship to the frequency with which the individual replies, disregarding succession. The average scores rise gradually as before. The mean score of those who reply twice is greater than the mean score of those who respond once, and this difference is highly significant (critical ratio of 3.5). Although the differences are not significant between those who reply twice and those who respond three times, or between those who respond three and those who answer four times, they are quite significant between those who reply once and three times (C. R. of 4.6), and between those who reply once and those who respond four times (C. R. of 6.3). Between those who respond twice and those who answer four times, the C. R. is significant at the 5 per cent level, since it is 2.2. Thus, it is quite apparent that the superior individuals not only tend to reply in succession, but that they reply with greater frequency.

Part C of Table 2 indicates that individuals who return the questionnaire promptly, or early, in the fourth year, have a mean test score 1.4 points higher than those who return late, or with a follow-up letter. This difference, however, is not significant, the critical ratio being only 1.4.

CONCLUSIONS

Follow-up study of all male contestants in the First Annual Science Talent Search by means of a mailed questionnaire reveals that: (1) "Winner" contestants make almost perfect returns of the questionnaire for each of three follow-up years, (2) "Honorable Mention" contestants make the next largest percentage of returns, and (3) "Others"

¹⁷ Edgerton, H. A., and Britt, S. H., "Sex differences in the Science Talent Test," *Science*, 1944, 100, 192-193.

("also ran" contestants) have the lowest percentage of return. These results are consistent with the findings of previous studies which have shown that interest in the subject under investigation or ties to the questionnaire sponsor are related to high percentage of returns on the part of respondents.

A second part of the investigation concerning the Science Aptitude Examination scores of the "Others" contestants for four follow-up years reveals that: (4) if individuals continue to reply faithfully to the questionnaire year after year, for four years they tend to be superior on the Science Aptitude Examination to those who make no reply or

who reply in any lesser degree of succession; and (5) there is a rising mean value of the Science Aptitude Examination score in direct relationship to the frequency of replies, disregarding succession.

The implications of these findings are obvious. Intensive and vigorous follow-up is a basic tenet in mail questionnaire research. Otherwise, the tendency will be to obtain replies from those who have a special interest in the subject under study, or who exhibit some characteristic or characteristics different from the non-respondents or from the casual or indifferent respondents.

COMPARATIVE STANDARDS OF SOCIAL-SCIENCE PERIODICALS*

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THE PRESENT article has three purposes: (1) to present new data as to the relative standards of verifiability maintained by various social-science periodicals; (2) to present additional evidence of the reliability of independent Verifiability-Scale ratings; and (3) to analyze comparatively the contents of representative samples from the American and British *Sociological Review*.

The article on "Measuring Degrees of Verification in Sociological Writings," which appeared in the February, 1947, *American Sociological Review*, defined the original method, and presented data for eight sociological journals.¹

In the fall of 1946, Dr. Hart continued this project as a teaching aid in his course on Sociological Statistics. Ten members of the class each rated 55 or more articles which appeared during 1946 in three issues from each of the following three periodicals: the *American Sociological Review*, the *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, and the

Political Science Quarterly.² Two graduate students, Miss Marian Bessent and Miss Helen V. Matthews, rated sample numbers of the British *Sociological Review*, as reported in the present article. The basic principles employed in these follow-up studies are the same as those on which the original investigation was based, but improved and abridged methods of rating were used, and the scoring scale was revised. The relative standings of eleven social-science journals, as thus rated, are shown in Table 1.

The standard deviation of the scores in Table 1 is 30.0. Counting as independent items each rating of a different article by the same person, and each rating of the same article by a different person, the critical ratio of the difference between the score of the *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* and that of the next-highest-scoring—*Rural Sociology*—is 4.15, which would occur by chance less than once in 10,000 investigations. The critical ratios of the differences

* Manuscript received May 6, 1947.

¹ *Op. cit.*, Vol. 12, pp. 103-113.

² The results of this study are scheduled for publication about September, 1947, in the *American Journal of Sociology*.

between the score of the *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* and the periodicals below *Rural Sociology* are all still larger, the critical ratio of the difference in the case of *Social Science* being 11.9, which would not occur by chance as often as once in 10 to the 25th power.

Some other comparisons in Table 1 may throw a little light on the relative progress of various branches of social science toward

Rural Sociology) and educational sociology (as represented by the *Journal of Educational Sociology*) is $42.8 - 18.8 = 24.0$, with a critical ratio of 5.6.

RELIABILITIES OF RATINGS

The second paragraph of the present article refers to a study in which 55 articles from three periodicals were rated by each of ten students. The highest correlation be-

TABLE 1. PRELIMINARY VERIFIABILITY SCORES OF ELEVEN SOCIAL-SCIENCE PERIODICALS

Periodical	Dates of Sample	Number of Article Ratings	Score*
<i>Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology</i>	April, July, and October, 1946.....	90	62.7
<i>Rural Sociology</i>	July, 1943, to June 1946.....	69	42.8
(British) <i>Sociological Review</i>	January, 1938, to October, 1940.....	120	40.8
<i>American Sociological Review</i>	July, 1945, to June, 1946.....	108	39.2
Same.....	April, August, and October, 1946.....	115	38.3
<i>Social Forces</i>	July, 1943, to June, 1946.....	169	37.9
(British) <i>Sociological Review</i>	January, 1941, to October, 1944.....	70	34.7
<i>American Journal of Sociology</i>	July, 1943, to June, 1946.....	142	33.8
<i>Sociometry</i>	July, 1943, to June, 1946.....	83	33.0
<i>Political Science Quarterly</i>	March, June, and September, 1946.....	70	25.8
<i>Sociology and Social Research</i>	July, 1943, to June, 1946.....	113	24.8
<i>Journal of Educational Sociology</i>	July, 1943, to June, 1946.....	181	18.8
<i>Social Science</i>	July, 1943, to June, 1946.....	121	12.6

* These scores are based on weighting methods which have been revised since the publication of the original article.

verification in their methods of research. The difference in score between social psychology (as represented by the *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, and sociology (as represented by the combined samples of the *American Sociological Review* and the pre-war sample of the *Sociological Review*) is $62.7 - 39.4 = 23.3$, with a critical ratio of 6.5. The difference between sociology and political science (as represented by the *Political Science Quarterly*) is $39.4 - 25.8 = 13.6$, with a critical ratio of 3.5, which would not be exceeded by chance as often as once in 2,000 investigations.³ The difference between rural sociology (as represented by

tween the ratings by any pair of students in that study was $\bar{r} = .940$; the lowest was $\bar{r} = .712$. Neither of these correlations would have occurred by chance as often as once in ten million times.

Miss Bessent and Miss Matthews, in rating the (British) *Sociological Review* articles for the period January, 1941, to October, 1944, employed not only the classification of articles by types according to the revised instructions used by the ten students, but also used the methods of scoring sample sentences, according to rules set forth in the original article. The ratings which they obtained, working independently of one another, correlated more closely than the scores of any pair of the ten students. The Pearsonian correlation, corrected for size of sample and for degrees of freedom, is

³ Some preliminary ratings of articles from the *Public Opinion Quarterly*, suggest that the phases of political science represented in that periodical may prove to be much more factual in character.

$r = .962$. Breaking down these "full scores" into their component parts, the "type scores" of these two students correlated .989, and the "sample-sentence scores" .927. Thus, the inclusion of the sample-sentence ratings actually lowered instead of increasing the reliability. This does not mean, however, that the type scores were uncorrelated with the sample-sentence scores. Combining the ratings by the two students, type-scores correlated with sample-sentence scores to the extent of $\bar{r} = .955$.

The type-score correlation of .989 was so much higher than the highest value (.940) obtained in any of the intercorrelations between ratings of the ten students who worked on the other three periodicals, that further verification of the results seemed in order. When the two students had each independently rated 16 of the 35 articles, they made a preliminary report. As a check on their work at that stage, Dr. Hart independently classified the 16 articles into types, gave them scores corresponding with their types (without rating sample sentences), and correlated his results with those obtained by the students. His correlation was $\bar{r} = .914$ with Miss Bessent, and $\bar{r} = .905$ with Miss Matthews. The critical ratios of these correlations, based on the Z transformation, are 5.50 and 5.21, respectively; values of Student's t are 8.12 and 8.31 respectively. Either set of values indicates only infinitesimal likelihoods that the observed correlations are due to chance.

At the suggestion of Miss Bessent, a further verification experiment was carried out. At an appointed hour the two students came to Dr. Hart's office, knowing only that some rating process was to be carried out together as a check on the trustworthiness of the previous correlation. Without disclosing the plan to anyone, Dr. Hart brought into his office volumes 30 to 32 of the *Sociological Review*. Miss Bessent, Miss Matthews, and Dr. Hart then, in each other's presence, but entirely independently, rated 40 articles published between the dates of January, 1938, and October, 1940. The intercorrelations of the resulting scores (r) are: Bessent-

Matthews .968; Bessent-Hart .960; Matthews-Hart .963. These results confirm the fact that these two students were independently obtaining almost identical verifiability scores by the article-type rating process. A modification of the Spearman-Brown formula indicates that the means of Miss Bessent's and Miss Matthews' scores would correlate .993 with the scores which would result from pooling the ratings of an indefinitely large number of such raters.

In passing it is worth noting that the two students each rated 40 articles in 130 minutes, which means slightly over three minutes per article. Dr. Hart averaged approximately two minutes per article.

A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF FOUR JOURNALS

The comparative percentage distribution of articles into types is shown for four periodicals in Table 2. The scores given in line 13 are weighted arithmetic means of the scores for the various types of articles.

One of the greater contrasts, shown in line 1 of Table 2, is the large percentage (34.5) of articles of the "critical ratio" type appearing in the sample from the *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*. As compared with the *American Sociological Review*, the *Journal* has a superiority of 25.8 points, with a critical ratio of 6.8.

A similar contrast is shown if the totals of the F and DM groups (lines 10 and 11 in Table 2) are compared. These two groups consist of articles in which there is a maximum predominance of unsupported, sweeping generalities and of nonfactual value judgments. The *Journal* sample contains a significantly smaller percentage of such articles than the other periodicals, the difference with the *American Sociological Review* being 37.1, with a critical ratio of 5.9; with the (British) *Sociological Review* of 1938 to 1940, the difference is 37.0 with a critical ratio of 5.4; and with the *Political Science Quarterly*, the difference is 54.0, with a critical ratio of 6.9.

Two samples were analyzed from the British *Sociological Review*, one being largely pre-war, while the other was published

TABLE 2. DISTRIBUTION OF ARTICLES INTO TYPES, AND CORRESPONDING MEAN VERIFICATION SCORES, FOR THE *Sociological Review* FOR JANUARY, 1938, TO OCTOBER, 1940, AND JANUARY, 1941, TO OCTOBER, 1944, IN COMPARISON WITH THREE OTHER PERIODICALS FOR THREE ISSUES MADE IN 1946

Line No.	Types of Articles	Percentage Distributions				
		<i>Jrnl. of Abnormal and Social Psychology</i> 1946	<i>American Socio-logical Review</i> 1946	(British) <i>Sociological Review</i>		<i>Political Science Qrtly.</i> 1946
				1938 to 1940	1941 to 1944	
1	A: "Critical ratio".....	34.5	8.7	10.8	2.8	0.0
2	DAB: Doubtful: A or B.....	2.2	0.9	1.7	0.0	0.0
3	B: Other statistical.....	17.8	19.1	26.6	12.9	7.1
4	Total statistical.....	54.5	28.7	39.1	15.7	7.1
5	CEC: Case and ecological.....	24.4	17.4	6.7	24.3	15.7
6	Sc: Scholarly.....	10.0	6.1	6.7	18.6	11.4
7	DABC: Doubtful: A, B, or C.....	0.0	0.9	0.8	0.0	0.0
8	DC: Doubtful: CEC or Sc.....	2.2	0.9	0.8	1.4	2.9
9	Cumulative total.....	91.1	54.0	54.1	60.0	37.1
10	DM: Doubtful: mixed.....	3.3	12.1	9.2	4.3	30.0
11	F: Others.....	5.6	33.9	36.7	35.7	32.9
12	Grand total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
13	Type scores.....	62.7	38.3	40.8	32.9	25.8
14	Number of articles rated.....	18	23	40	35	14
15	Number of raters.....	5	5	3	2	5
16	Number of article-ratings.....	90	115	120	70	465*

* Totals.

during the war. In the war sample the mean score (line 13 of Table 2) dropped from 40.8 to 32.9—a difference of 7.9 points. The critical ratio of this difference is only 1.6, which is not statistically significant. However, the percentage of statistical articles (line 4) dropped from 39.1 to 15.7—a difference of 23.4 with a standard error of 6.92, and a critical ratio of 3.4, which would not occur by chance once in 1300 times. On the other hand, the percentage of case, ecological, and scholarly articles (lines 5 and 6) increased from 13.4 to 42.9—a difference of 29.5, with a critical ratio of 5.9.

CONCLUSIONS

The investigation summarized in this article, taken together with allied studies to which reference has been made herein, justify the following tentative conclusions:

1. The rating procedures used provide highly reliable, and at least fairly valid, methods for measuring the degrees of scientific verifiability of sociological writings.

2. Rating by types of articles can be done reliably, by intelligent and properly trained students, at the rate of 15 or more articles per hour.

3. Rating by sample sentences, while important in the development of the verification scale, is not essential to the reliability of the results in projects such as are reported in the present article.

4. The leading sociological journals have been significantly lower in scientific verifiability than the *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, but decidedly higher in this quality than the numbers of the *Political Science Quarterly* rated herein.

OFFICIAL REPORTS and PROCEEDINGS



THE 1947 CENSUS OF RESEARCH PROJECTS

A. INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT

The number of projects submitted by members of the Society to the Committee on Social Research increased 44 percent this year over 1946. A total of 714 projects were submitted in 1947 as compared with 495 last year. This makes the fourth consecutive year in which the number has increased. The total number for each of the last five years is given in Table 1.

Part of the increase is undoubtedly due to the increase in the membership of the Society, since during the past year the membership increased tremendously from 1,309 members in 1946 to about 1,800 in 1947, or 38 percent. A total of 735 members, or 41 percent of the total membership of the Society, returned schedules but only 442 submitted projects. The returns are classified according to occupation in Table 2.

TABLE 1. NUMBER OF PROJECTS BY YEARS, 1943-1947

Year	Number of Projects	Per Cent Increase Over Previous Year
1947	714	44.2
1946	495	14.6
1945	432	38.9
1944	311	12.7
1943	276	

Eighty percent of the replies and 83 percent of the projects came from colleges and universities. Twenty-five percent of the replies and 30 percent of the projects were from professors of sociology.

TABLE 2. MEMBERS RETURNING SCHEDULES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION

Occupation	Members Who Returned Schedules in 1947		
	Reported Projects	Did not Report Project	Total
University or College:.....	369	220	589
Professor of Sociology.....	131	51	182
Assoc. Prof. of Sociology.....	48	14	62
Asst. Prof. of Sociology.....	45	19	64
Instructor in Sociology.....	37	18	55
Lecturer in Sociology.....	8	4	12
Other or unstated job in Sociology.....	6	8	14
Graduate student.....	60	63	123
Position not in Sociology.....	34	43	77
Research Organization:.....	27	11	38
Government Research.....	13	8	21
Research Institute.....	14	3	17
Other.....	—	—	—
Social Agencies (non-research jobs).....	2	12	14
Government (non-research jobs).....	5	10	15
Other.....	38	31	69
Unknown.....	1	9	10
Total.....	442	293	735

TABLE 3. NUMBER OF PROJECTS REPORTED IN 1945, 1946, AND 1947 CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO FIELDS OF SOCIOLOGY

Field of Sociology	Number of Projects		
	1947	1946	1945
Social Psychology.....	92	87	62
History and Theory.....	82	50	52
Population.....	62	35	31
Rural Sociology.....	55	40	34
Social Problems.....	55	32	39
Community.....	53	*	*
Marriage & Family.....	54	40	37
Political Sociology.....	40	39	39
Social Research.....	38	38	23
Educational Sociology.....	35	27	21
Industrial Sociology.....	34	13	Not Grouped
Criminology.....	32	23	16
Urban Sociology & Ecology.....	24	53*	56*
Race, Ethnic & Cultural Relations.....	22	Not Grouped	Not Grouped
Sociology of Religion.....	19	11	15
Public Opinion.....	6	Not Grouped	Not Grouped
Social Change.....	4	Not Grouped	Not Grouped
Miscellaneous.....	7	7	7
Total.....	714	495	432

* The Community was grouped with Urban Sociology and Ecology in 1945 and 1946.

The greatest number of projects are in the field of Social Psychology, followed by Social Theory. Twenty-four percent of all projects fall into these two groups.

Certain fields of sociology have received much more emphasis this year than last. Projects in Theory have increased 64 percent, those in the field of Population increased 77 percent and those in Industrial Sociology increased from 13 in 1946 to 34 in 1947. Certain fields which were merged with others last year seem to be sufficiently important this year to be listed as separate categories. For example, there are 53 projects in the Community which was merged last year with Urban Sociology and Ecology. There are 22 projects in Race, Ethnic and Cultural Relations; 6 in Public Opinion and 4 in Social Change.

Of the 442 members submitting projects 281, or 64 percent, listed only one project. Only 11

percent listed more than two. Four individuals listed seven projects each; one of these classified them into two fields, another into four fields and a third into five different fields. The three returns listing eight or more projects represent group research with more than one individual involved.

Unfortunately, we have no way of evaluating the projects. It should be recognized that mere increase in the number of projects does not necessarily signify any more important research. It might conceivably happen that the individual with the greatest number of projects is making the least contribution to research. Some idea of the nature of the projects may be gleaned from the titles. The Chairman of the Committee has on file the somewhat more detailed descriptive statements if anyone is interested in particular projects.

B. RESEARCH REPORTS FROM MEMBERS, 1947

NOTE: (1) As in the past the titles of projects have been classified according to the first choices of their authors, except when such a policy led to groups of too few projects to be classified separately. Also, as in the past, the titles have been

listed in the author's own words. The titles in each section are arranged alphabetically by authors.

(2) Item (d) of the Census Schedule requested information on the progress of each project. This

information is coded after each project in the list below for the convenience of members who may wish to know the status of a particular study. The code is in three letters: (1) The first Y or N shows whether or not the data have been collected; (2) The second Y or N indicates if the manuscript has been drafted or not; if N, the probable date of availability is shown in parentheses; (3) The last Y or N states whether

or not the author has arranged publication before December 31, 1947. Thus a project for which data are collected but for which the manuscript will not be available until November of this year and for which no publication arrangements have been concluded would be designated: YN (Nov. '46) N. An O indicates "no information" on the item involved.

I. SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY AND SOCIAL PSYCHIATRY

A Study in Adolescent Attitudes Toward Rural Living. Rev. Anthony J. Adams, S.J., Institute of Social Order, St. Louis, Missouri. YN(Sept. 47)N

Structure and Mobility in the Ministry. Philip J. Allen, University of Chattanooga, Chattanooga, Tennessee. YY(O)N

Social Pathology of Alcoholism. Selden D. Bacon, Yale University, New Haven, Conn. YN (1948)N

The Easter Festival. James H. Barnett, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Conn. YN(Sept. 47)N

A Study of Christmas Mail. James H. Barnett, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Conn. NN (June 48)N

An Analysis of Japanese War Propaganda. Joel V. Berreman, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon. YY(O)N

A Sociological Theory of Personality. Herbert A. Bloch, St. Lawrence University, Canton, New York. YY(O)N

Name Changing in Los Angeles County. Leonard Bloom and Virginia Harris, University of California, Los Angeles, California. NN (Nov. 47)N

Factors Associated with the Dissatisfaction of the Female with Her Cultural Role. Hope M. Branum, Stanford University, Stanford University, California. YN(O)N

A Sociological Exploration into Some Institutional Bases of War. Lee M. Brooks and Norbert L. Kelly, University of No. Carolina, Chapel Hill, No. Carolina. (Fall 47)

The Family and Mental Ill Health. L. Guy Brown, Rhode Island State College, Kingston, Rhode Island. YN(O)N

The Organic Heritage as a Phase of One's Environment. L. Guy Brown, Rhode Island State College, Kingston, Rhode Island. YN(O)N

Concept Structure and Treatment of Minorities. Joseph H. Bunzel, Fisk University, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. YY(O)N

Phylobiological Investigation of the Causal Factors underlying Individual and Social Maladaptation, with Special Emphasis on the Neuromuscular Modifications Involved. Trigant Burrow, M.D., Lifwynn Foundation, Westport, Connecticut. YY(O)N

The Adjustment of the Westerner to Chinese Culture. J. Stewart Buyen, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. YY(O)Y

American Labor Psychology. Arthur W. Calhoun, Sterling College, Sterling, Kansas. YY (O)N

The Acceleration of Human Relationships. F. Stuart Chapin, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota. YN(O)N

The Relationship of Occupation to Various Psychoses. Robert E. Clark, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. YN(Aug. 47)N

Public Reaction to the Atomic Bomb and International Relations. Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr., Cornell University, Ithaca, New York. YY(O)O

The Concept of Self in Psychiatry. Bingham Dai, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina. YN(Dec. 47)N

Society, Culture and Neurosis. Bingham Dai, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina. YN (Oct. 47)O

Study of Attitudes on Social Progress. Gerhard Ditz, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin. YN(June 47)N

Sociological Factors Affecting Level of General Ability. Robert E. L. Faris, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York. YN(Nov. 47)N

The Psychological Mechanism of the Self. J. M. Finley, University of Texas, Austin, Texas. YY(O)N

Relation of Income to Public Opinion. J. M. Finley, University of Texas, Austin, Texas. YY(O)N

The Adjustive Behavior of Bereaved Soldiers. David M. Fulcomer, Drew University, Madison, New Jersey. YN(O)N

Ego Security and Acculturation in a Guatemalan Community. John P. Gillin, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, No. Carolina. YY(O)N

The Use of Dreams in the Determination of Aphasic Deficits. Herbert Holdhamer, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. YY(O)N

A Study of Personal Character Among the Japanese. Douglas G. Haring, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York. YY(O)N

A Sociological Viewpoint of the Psychopathic Personality. Harrison G. Gough, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota. YY(O)N

Social Psychological Factors in Health. Mowzell C. Hill, Atlanta University, Atlanta, Georgia. YN(May 48)N

The Prediction of Vocational Adjustment. Louisa P. Holt, Menninger Foundation, Topeka, Kansas. YY(O)N

Applications of Psychoanalysis to Sociology. Louisa P. Holt, Menninger Foundation, Topeka, Kansas. NN(1948)N

The Sociometry of Living Units. Ruth A. Inglis and George Lundberg, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington. NN(Nov. 47)N

Motion Picture Audience Reactions and Effects. Ruth A. Inglis, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington. NN(Nov. 47)N

Charity Rackets. Samuel Haig Jameson, California Intelligence Bureau, Los Angeles, California. YN(Nov. 47)N

A Note on an Apparent Relationship between Tempermental Traits and Dominant Cultural Values. Robert W. James, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois. YN(O)N

Social Planning and the Individual—A Case History. (Tentative title.) Elmer H. Johnson, University of Wisconsin, Badger, Wisconsin. YN(Sept. 47)N

The Role of the Negro Press in the Formation of Public Opinion. Clifton R. Jones, Morgan State College, Baltimore, Maryland. YN(July 47)N

The Pan American Council of Chicago: A Case Study. Robert C. Jones, Pan American Union, Washington, D.C. YN(1948)N

Chinese Nativism: The "Boxers." Fenton Keyes, Skidmore College, Saratoga Springs, New York. YY(O)N

Sociology of Hero Worship. Orrin E. Klapp, Carleton College, Northfield, Minnesota. YN(June 48)N

Psychological Functions of Heroes. Orrin E. Klapp, Carleton College, Northfield, Minnesota. YN(June 48)N

A Systematic Study of Social Control. Richard T. LaPiere, Stanford University, Stanford University, California. NN(1949)N

The Professional Dance Musician. Carlo L. Lastrucci, San Francisco State College, San Francisco, California. YY(O)Y

Contributions of Public Opinion Surveying to a Theory of Culture. Alfred M. Lee, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan. YN(Aug. 47)N

Changes in Attitudes, Opinions, Information and English Language Ability of Latin American Students Resulting in a Year's Training in the United States. Charles P. Loomis, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan. YY(O)Y

Techniques of the Modern American Agitator. Leo Lowenthal, Institute of Social Research, New York, N.Y. YY(O)N

A Study of Discrimination in the Selection of Personal Associates. George A. Lundberg, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington. YN(Nov. 47)N

Miami County (Ohio) Health and Human Development Project. A. R. Mangus, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. YN(Sept. 47)N

Factors Influencing Friendship Formation. George Masterton, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio. NN(O)N

Social-Psychological Factors in the Alcoholics Anonymous Program. Milton A. Maxwell, University of Texas, Austin, Texas. YN(Sept. 48)O

A Study of Some of the Etiological Factors of Nail-biting Among College Students. Jean E. McCalley, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas. YN(O)N

An Experimental Study of Children with Behavior Problems: Factors Contributing to the Behavior Difficulties of Children Residing in a War Housing Project. Merle L. Meacham, Reed College, Portland, Oregon. NN(Jan. 48)N

Project on German Extermination Camps. Norman Miller, *et al.*, Conference on Jewish Relations, Weehawken, New Jersey. YN(1948)N

The American Labor Leader: A Collective Portrait. C. Wright Mills, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YY(O)Y

The New Middle Class: A Study of White Collar People. C. Wright Mills, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YN(1948)N

Influence: A Study of Opinions in the Making. C. Wright Mills and Helen Schneider, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YN(Jan. 48)N

Social Factors in Combat Fatigue: A Study of 341 Men of the U. S. Navy, Amphibious Force, Who were Diagnosed Combat Fatigue. Joel B. Montague, Jr., State College of Washington, Pullman, Washington. YY(Sept. 47)N

When Men Retire. Elen H. Moore, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon. YY(O)N

Adjustment of Veterans to a University Campus. Harry E. Moore, University of Texas, Austin, Texas. YY(O)N

Role Conception and Participation in Voluntary Associations. Annabelle B. Motz, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. YO(O)N

Effects of the War upon Personal Disorganization. Ernest R. Mowrer, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois. YN(Oct. 47)N

Student Selection of Instructors on the Basis of the National Origin of Faculty Names. Raymond A. Mulligan, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. NN(O)N

Social Psychology of Motion Picture Attendance. Robert C. Myers, Audience Research, Inc., Princeton, N.J. YY(O)N

The Negro Veteran at a Negro State School. Lionel H. Newsom, Lincoln University, Jefferson City, Missouri. YN(Aug. 47)N

The Civil Servant In Public Bureaucracy:

An Empirical Investigation Into His Social Role. Leonard Reissman, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin. NN(O)N

A Sociological Investigation of the Alcoholics Anonymous Movement. Oscar Ritchie, Kent State University, Massillon, Ohio. YN(Aug. 47)N

An Ecological Study of Women Alcoholics in Chicago. Donald E. Roos, Northern Illinois State Teachers College, DeKalb, Illinois. YN(Sept. 47)N

Levels of Aspiration of Industrial Workers. Alvin W. Rose, Tennessee State College, Nashville, Tennessee. YY(O)N

Social Role of Woman in Contemporary American Culture. Rev. Louis A. Ryan, O.P., College of St. Mary of the Springs, Columbus, Ohio. YY(O)N

The Internment Camp. Alvin H. Scaff, University of Texas, Austin, Texas. YN(June 48)N

Some Personality Correlates of Prejudice. Melvin Seeman, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. YN(Dec. 47)N

Personal and Social Factors in Adjustment Change. Melvin Seeman, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. YN(Dec. 47)N

A Study of the Hawaiian-Born Nisei Soldier in the United States Armed Forces. Dora Seu, 265 Henry St., New York, N.Y. NN(Sept. 47)N

Personality Development in Rural Society. William H. Sewell, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin. NN(Dec. 47)N

Factors Influencing the Vocational Choices of Rural Youth. William H. Sewell, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin. NN(O)N

The Nature and Function of Rumor. Tamotsu Shibusaki, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. YN(1948)N

Adjustment of Unemployed Veterans. Erwin O. Smigel, New York University, New York, N.Y. YN(Nov. 47)N

Problems of Student Conduct in Church Related Colleges. Philip M. Smith, Union College, Barbourville, Kentucky. NN(Nov. 47)N

Patterns of Discrimination among Industrial Workers. Edw. C. Solomon, Sarah Lawrence College, Bronxville, N.Y. YN(Sept. 47)O

Susceptibility and Non-susceptibility to Feelings of Loneliness. Anselm Strauss, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. YN(1947)N

A Theory on the Nature and Development of Human Nature. Samuel M. Strong, Carleton College, Northfield, Minnesota. YY(O)N

A Study of Negro Students' Attitudes. T. E. Sullinger, Municipal University of Omaha, Omaha, Nebraska. OO(O)O

A Social Psychological Study of Reading and Library Usage in Lenawee County, Michigan. Gus Turbeville, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan. NN(Dec. 48)N

Modern Social Fiction and Drama. Melvin J. Vincent, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California. YN(O)N

Social Role. Roland L. Warren, Alfred University, Alfred, N.Y. YN(Sept. 47)N

Factors Related to Changed Attitudes Toward Other Ethnic Groups. Goodwin Watson, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. NN(O)N

Growing Up in Canada. Goodwin Watson, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YN(O)Y

The Concept, "Self" in Social Psychology. S. Kirson Weinberg, Whitman College, Walla Walla, Washington, YN(Sept. 47)N

Foundations of Personality. Robert F. Winch, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee. NN(O)N

Study of the Mormon Polygynous Family. Kimball Young, Queens College, Flushing, Long Island, N.Y. YN(1948)N

II. HISTORY AND THEORY OF SOCIOLOGY

A Joint Social Science Study of the Meeting of Plural Population Groups in one Area. B. W. Aginsky and E. G. Aginsky, College of the City of New York and Hunter College, New York, N.Y. YY(O)Y

Theory of Organization; Organization Analysis. Conrad M. Arnsberg, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YN(O)N

Sociology of Industrial Relations. Conrad M. Arnsberg, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YN(O)N

Ethnic Group Accommodation in the Northeastern U.S.A. Conrad M. Arnsberg, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YN(O)N

The Sociology of Georg Simmel. Elise Boulding, Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa. NN(Sept. 48)N

Systematic Sociology in the U.S.—Six

Pioneers. Gladys Bryson, Smith College, Northampton, Massachusetts. YN(O)N

The Theater and Social Control. Joseph H. Bunzel, Fisk University, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. YY(O)N

Concept and Curriculum of Housing. Joseph H. Bunzel, Fisk University, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. YN(Dec. 47)N

Integration: The Principle of Sociology. Arthur W. Calhoun, Sterling College, Sterling, Kansas. YY(O)N

The Position of Intellectuals in Contemporary Chinese Society. Ai-li S. Chin, Radcliffe College, Cambridge, Massachusetts. NN(1948)N

Italian Sociologists. W. Rex Crawford, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. YY(O)Y

Contemporary North American Sociology.

Kingsley Davis, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey. OY(O)Y

Conflict and Concord. Gottfried S. Delatour, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YN(Dec. 47)Y

Systematic Social Science. Stuart C. Dodd, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington. YY(O)N

Is There an Ultimate Social Value in Our Culture. George A. Douglas, Alabama College, Montevallo, Alabama. YN(Oct. 47)N

Conceptual Analysis of Cooperative Processes. Joseph W. Eaton, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan. YN(Dec. 47)N

The Theory of Social-Cultural Change. Hugo O. Engelmann, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan. YN(O)N

General Treatise on Social Disorganization. Robert E. L. Faris, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York. YY(O)Y

Age-Sex Categories and Social Structure. George H. Fathauer, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. NN(Sept. 48)N

The Social Theory of Karl Mannheim. Ephraim Fischhoff, American International College, Springfield, Massachusetts. YN(Dec. 47)N

The Role of Voluntary Associations in the Integration of American Society: A Preliminary Investigation. Sherwood D. Fox, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. NN(1948)N

Sociological Aspects of Fascism. C. Di Giora, New York University, Brooklyn, New York. NN(O)N

The Analysis of Inter-generational Mobility. Herbert Goldhamer, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. YN(July 47)N

Research in the California Community. Walter R. Goldschmidt, University of California, Los Angeles, California. YY(O)Y

Society and Social Change in St. Thomas, Ward, Sumner and Cooley. Mary Edward Healy (Sister), College of St. Catherine, St. Paul, Minnesota. YY(O)Y

The Social Thought of Stoicism: A Study in the Sociology of Knowledge. J. O. Hertzler, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska. NN(O)N

Social Processes. J. O. Hertzler, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska. NN(O)N

Trends of Emphasis in Sociology 1926-1945. Albert H. Hobbs, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. YN(Dec. 47)N

A Study of Social Organization. George C. Homans, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. YN(O)N

The Sociology of Music. Paul Honigsheim, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan. YN(O)N

Investigations in the Fields of Sociological and Anthropological Thought. Paul Honigsheim,

Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan. YN(O)Y

A Theory of Social Problems in Terms of Symbol-Referent Analysis. Norman D. Humphrey, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan. NN(O)N

Are Our Presuppositions Concerning "Prejudices" Correct? Gustav Ichheiser, Talladega College, Talladega, Alabama. YN(Dec. 47)N

The Labor Force as a Social Artifact. A. J. Jaffe, U. S. Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C. YN(Oct. 47)N

Status Factor in Social Interaction. Samuel H. Jameson, California Intelligence Bureau, Los Angeles, California. YY(O)N

An Essay on the Social Structure of France. Harry M. Johnson, Simmons College, Boston, Massachusetts. NN(Jan. 48)N

Ethnography of the Cocopa Indians of the Colorado River Delta. William H. Kelly, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. YY(O)N

Sociologically Derived Family Norms and Democratic Values. William L. Kolb, Tulane University, New Orleans, Louisiana. YY(O)N

The Pattern of a Social Reform Movement. Mirra Komarovsky, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. NN(1948)N

The Interdependance of Technology and Social Organization. Richard T. LaPiere, Stanford University, Stanford University, California. NN(O)N

Theories of Social Problems. Alfred M. Lee and Elizabeth B. Lee, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan. YN(Oct. 47)N

Familism and the Chinese Family. Shu-Ching Lee, University of Maryland, Washington, D.C. YN(Oct. 47)N

The Nature and Function of the Theory of Causality in Sociology. Leo J. Martin, S.J., West Baden College, West Baden Springs, Indiana. YN(Oct. 47)N

The Role of Controversy in Public Opinion. Harry E. Moore, University of Texas, Austin, Texas. YY(O)N

Sociological Aspects of Socialist Theory and Practice. Wilbert E. Moore, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey. YY(O)N

Principles of Social Engineering. Scott Nearing, Jamaica, Vermont. YN(O)N

Social Organization and Political Sovereignty. Robert A. Nisbet, University of California, Berkeley, California. YY(O)N

Prestige Rating of Occupations in the United States. Cecil C. North and Paul Holt, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. YN(Sept. 47)N

Class and Caste in American Society. Charles H. Page, Smith College, Northampton, Massachusetts. YN(Dec. 47)N

A Study of Society. Charles H. Page and

R. M. MacIver, Smith College, Northampton, Massachusetts. YN(Dec. 47)N

Systematic Sociology. Constantine Panunzio, University of California, Los Angeles, California. NN(O)N

The Theory of Social Systems. Talcott Parsons, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. NN(O)N

Business Cycle in a Totalitarian Economy. G. Reiman, 444 Homestead Avenue, Mt. Vernon, New York. YN(Dec. 47)N

A Social History of Medicine from 1700 to the Present. George Rosen, M.D., Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YY(O)N

An Historical and Logical Analysis of the Concept of Social Medicine. George Rosen, M.D., Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YY(O)N

History of Western Social Theory. Eva J. Ross, Trinity College, Washington, D.C. YY(O)N

The Use of Research for Administrative Purposes. Patricia J. Salter, Bureau of Applied Social Research, Columbia University, New York. NN(Dec. 48)N

An Analysis of Federative Patterns in Social Organization. Richard M. Seaman, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee. YY(O)N

Society, Culture, and Personality: Their Structure and Dynamics (A System of General Sociology). Pitirim A. Sorokin, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. YY(O)Y

A Series of Research on Altruistic Man, Groups, Culture and Social Institutions. Pitirim A. Sorokin, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. NN(1948)O

Lester F. Ward Correspondence. (Editing of) Bernhard J. Stern, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YN(47)N

Conservatism in Medicine: Its Socio-economic and Psychological Basis. Bernhard J. Stern, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YY(O)Y

Outline of Anthropology. Bernhard J. Stern and Melville Jacobs Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YY(O)Y

Rural Urban Folk Conflict as Illustrated by Atlanta and Rural Georgia. Willis A. Sutton, Jr., University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. NN(1948)N

The Effects of Personality and Culture on Power in Soviet Society. D. Tomasic, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. NN(Dec. 48)O

The Effects of Personality and Culture on Power in the Balkans. D. Tomasic, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. YY(O)N

The Integration of Sociology and Anthropology. John Useem, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin. YY(Dec. 47)N

Caste and Class Systems of Yap and Palau. John Useem, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin. YY(O)N

The Status of the Socially and Physically Inferior as Reflected in the Literature of Ancient Israel. Morris R. Werb, Jewish League of Caldwell, New Jersey, Caldwell, New Jersey. YY(O)N

The Role of the Encyclopedia in Society. Doris West, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. YY(O)N

The Early Economic and Social Development of Arkansas. Henry F. White, John Brown University, Siloam Springs, Arkansas. YY(O)Y

American Sociologists on the U.S.S.R. Verne Wright, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. NN(Nov. 47)N

San Cristobal, New Mexico: A Study in the Theory of Culture Patterns. Kurt H. Wolff, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. NN(Sept. 48)N

The Sociology of Knowledge: History and Theory. Kurt H. Wolff, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. NN(Dec. 48)N

A Partial Analysis of Student Reactions to President Roosevelt's Death. Kurt H. Wolff, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. YY(O)Y

A Critique of *Naven* by Gregory Bateson. Kurt H. Wolff, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. YY(O)Y

Toward a Philosophy of Sociology. Kurt H. Wolff, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. YY(O)N

Arthur Child's Sociology of Knowledge. Kurt H. Wolff, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. YN(Aug. 47)N

Franciscan Social Reform. Rev. Theodore Zaremba, St. Francis College, Burlington, Wisconsin. YY(O)Y

Future of the (Western) Family System. Carle C. Zimmerman, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. YN(June 48)N

Professional Roles in Modern Societies. Florian Znaniecki, University of Illinois, Champaign, Illinois. YN(Dec. 48)N

III. POPULATION

Social Factors in Longevity. Chester Alexander, Westminster College, Fulton, Missouri. YY(O)Y

Public Health Work in the Southeast, 1872-1941: The Study of A Social Movement. Francis

R. Allen, University of Alabama, University, Alabama. YY(O)N

Differential Fertility in New York State, 1865. Wendell H. Bash, Colgate University, Hamilton, New York. YN(O)N

Immigration and Colonization in Latin America. Richard F. Behrendt, Colgate University, Hamilton, New York. NN(1948)N

Trends in the Concentration and Decentralization of Population and Selected Economic Activities. Donald J. Bogue, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. NN(Mar. 48)N

An Analysis of some Aspects of Rural-Urban and Urban-Rural Migration, 1935-40. Edmund deS. Brunner, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YN(Oct. 47)N

The Calculation of Adjusted Marriage Rates. Theodore Caplow, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota. YY(O)N

A Survey and Analysis of Demographic Factors Related to Health Needs in Mississippi State Hospital Districts. Vernon Davies, University of Mississippi, University, Mississippi. YN(Dec. 47)Y

Mississippi Migrants: Inter- and Intra-state. Vernon Davies, University of Mississippi, University, Mississippi. YN(June 48)N

Population and Social Organization in India. Kingsley Davis, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey. YY(O)Y

Puerto Rico's Population Problems. Kingsley Davis, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey. NN(O)N

Some Pre-requisites in the Theory of Sampling. W. Edwards Deming, Bureau of the Budget, Washington, D.C. YY(O)Y

The Rural Population of Missouri. Department of Rural Sociology, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri. YY(O)N

The Labor Force in the United States: 1890 to 1960. John D. Durand, Population Division, United Nations Secretariat, Lake Success, N.Y. YY(O)N

What Is A Family? Paul C. Glick, Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C. YN(Nov. 47)N

The Effects of War Upon American Population Movements. Philip M. Hauser, Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C. YN(Oct. 48)N

Social Change in the South with Special Emphasis on Urbanization. Rudolf Heberle, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana. NN(O)N

The Labor Force in Louisiana. Rudolf Heberle, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana. YY(O)N

Estimate of the Alien Population of the United States. E. P. Hutchinson and Ernest Rubin, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. YY(O)N

Study of the Development of the Immigration Policy of the United States. E. P. Hutchinson, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. NN(O)N

Population Losses of World War II. A. J. Jaffe, Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C. YY(O)N

Negroes in the New World. Robert C. Jones, Pan American Union, Washington, D.C. YN(O)O

The Integration of the Mexican Minority into American Democracy. Robert C. Jones, Pan American Union, Washington, D.C. YN(O)O

Indians Look at the Future. Robert C. Jones, Pan American Union, Washington, D.C. YN(1948)O

Mexican Contract Workers in the United States. Robert C. Jones, Pan American Union, Washington, D.C. YN(1947)Y

Mississippi Population: Trends and Problems. Morton King, Jr., University of Mississippi, University, Mississippi. NN(Dec. 47)N

The Relation of Economic Tension, Economic Security, and Socio-economic Status to the Size of Planned Families. Clyde V. Kiser and P. K. Whelpton, Millbank Memorial Fund, New York, N.Y. and Scripps Foundation, Oxford, Ohio, respectively. YN(1948)N

Internal Migration Differentials by Ethnic Groups. Peter P. Klassen, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida. YN(Feb. 48)N

The People of Tennessee. John B. Knox, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee. NN-(July 48)N

Social Aspects of Recent Population Trends in North Carolina. Selz C. Mayo, North Carolina State College, Raleigh, North Carolina, YO(O)O

Tuberculosis in the United States. Robert L. McNamara, U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, Washington, D.C. YY(O)Y

The Development of National Marriage and Divorce Statistics. Samuel C. Newman, National Office of Vital Statistics, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D.C. NN(O)N

A Socio-Economic Study of the Negro in Jefferson City, Missouri. Lionel H. Newsom, Lincoln University, Jefferson City, Missouri. YN(June 47)N

The Demography of War. Constantine Panunzio, University of California, Los Angeles, California. YY(O)N

Population Growth in Ten Counties of Southern California. Constantine Panunzio, University of California, Los Angeles, California. NN(1948)O

Some Aspects of Internal Migration in the United States, 1935-1940. Daniel O. Price, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. YN(Dec. 47)N

Migration to and from Louisiana, 1935-1940. Paul H. Price, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana. YY(O)N

The Study of Jewish Immigration in Canada. Louis Rosenberg, Canadian Jewish Congress, Montreal, Quebec, Canada. YN(Dec. 47)Y

Jews in Agriculture in Canada. Louis Rosen-

berg, Canadian Jewish Congress, Montreal, Quebec, Canada. YN(Dec. 47)Y

Social Factors Affecting the Sex Ratio at Birth. Carl M. Rosenquist, University of Texas, Austin, Texas. YN(July 47)N

The Health and Longevity of the People of Texas. Carl M. Rosenquist, University of Texas, Austin, Texas. NN(Nov. 47)N

Trends of Population in Texas. Daniel Russell, Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, College Station, Texas. NN(O)O

Fertility and Nuptiality: A Sociological and Demographic Analysis. Georges Sabagh, Office of Population Research, Princeton, New Jersey. NN(1948)N

Standards of Living and the Supply of Population: An Investigation of the Role of Competing Values in the Determination of Family Size. H. W. Saunders, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa. NN(O)N

Competition, Conflict and Accommodation of Puerto Rican Migrants to St. Croix, Virgin Islands. Clarence Senior, University of Puerto Rico, Rio Piedras, Puerto Rico. YY(O)Y

Puerto Rican Migration: Past Experiences, Problems and Possible Results. Clarence Senior, University of Puerto Rico, Rio Piedras, Puerto Rico. YY(O)Y

A Critique of the "Economicistic" Approach to Stabilizing the Puerto Rican Population. Clarence Senior, University of Puerto Rico, Rio Piedras, Puerto Rico. YY(O)N

Problems in Measuring Internal Migration, Postwar Migration, Migration of Veterans, Causes of Internal Migration. Henry S. Shryock, Jr., Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C. YN(O)O

Louisiana Population. Marion B. Smith, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana. YN(O)N

Comparison of Educational Status of American Population on the Basis of Sex. Marion B. Smith, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana. YN(Sept. 47)N

Japanese American Evacuation and Resettlement. Dorothy S. Thomas, University of California, Berkeley, California. YN(Dec. 47)N

Factors Affecting the Distribution of Population Within the United States. Warren S.

Thompson, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. NN(O)N

Some Relationships Between Fertility and Level of Living in the United States. Warren S. Thompson, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. YN(Dec. 47)N

Internal Migration in the United States. Warren S. Thompson and Donald J. Bogue, in collaboration with Bureau of the Census and Henry S. Shryock, Jr., Scripps Foundation, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. YN(O)N

Human Fertility and Contraception in Puerto Rico. Christopher Tietze, M.D., National Committee on Maternal Health. YY(O)Y

A Study of Pregnancy Wastage. Christopher Tietze, M.D., National Committee on Maternal Health. NN(O)N

Reproduction Ratio of Jewish Populations in Central Europe in the Interwar Period. Christopher Tietze, M.D., National Committee on Maternal Health. YN(O)N

The Relative Importance of Contraception, Low Fecundity, and Sterility in Reducing the Birth Rate. P. K. Whelpton and Clyde V. Kiser, Scripps Foundation, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, and Milbank Memorial Fund, New York, N.Y., respectively. YN(Nov. 47)Y

The Relation between the Tendency to Plan Family Size and Number of Children Desired and: (1) the desire of children for brothers and sisters (2) the feeling that children interfere with personal freedom (3) the belief that an only child is handicapped (4) the desire to insure against childlessness (5) feelings regarding the sex of children (6) the extent to which interest in children is a matter of personal satisfaction. P. K. Whelpton, *et al.*, Scripps Foundation, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. YN(1948)N

Estimates of Future Population of the United States 1940-1975. P. K. Whelpton, Scripps Foundation, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. YY(O)Y

Studies in Internal Mobility. Vincent H. Whitney, Brown University, Providence, Rhode Island. YN(Dec. 47)N

The Rural Nonfarm Population: Patterns of Growth and Decline. Vincent H. Whitney, Brown University, Providence, Rhode Island. YN(Sept. 47)N

IV. RURAL SOCIOLOGY

A Study of the Values of Living and Working in the Rural Areas. W. A. Anderson, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York. YY(O)Y

People and Resources in Eastern Kentucky. Howard W. Beers, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky. YY(O)Y

Mobility of Rural Population in Two Types of

Communities. Howard W. Beers, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky. YY(O)Y

Fertility of Rural Population in Two Types of Communities. Howard W. Beers, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky. YN(Oct. 47)N

A Research Memorandum on Rural Crime

During the Depression. Herbert A. Bloch, St. Lawrence University, Canton, New York. YY (July 47)N

Relationships between Social Factors and Farm Income in Eastern Bell County, Texas. Melvin S. Brooks (with Robert L. Skrabaneck), Texas A. & M. College, College Station, Texas. YY(O)N

Social Effects of the Returning Rural Migration. James S. Brown and Howard W. Beers, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky. YY(Nov. 47)N

A Socio-Educational Appraisal of a County Agricultural Extension Program. Edmund deS. Brunner, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. NN(O)N

Recent Cooperative Farming Projects in the United States. Joseph W. Eaton, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan. YN(Sept. 1947)N

Rural Farm Level of Living Index for Counties, Mississippi, 1940. Abbott L. Ferriss, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. YN(Sept. 47)N

Provisions for Security by Farm Families. Cleo Fitzsimmons and Nellie L. Perkins, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana. YN(Dec. 47)N

The Mennonite Group in Manitoba. E. K. Francis, St. Paul's College, Winnipeg, Manitoba. YY(O)N

The Relationships Among Sociological Variables in Contemporary Rural Communities. Neal Gross, Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa. YY(O)N

Social Stratification in an Iowa Rural Community. Neal Gross, Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa. YN(Mar. 48)N

Jewish Agricultural Settlement in Palestine. Anna E. Hartog, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. YN(Sept. 47)N

Medical Service for Michigan Rural Families. Charles R. Hoffer, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan. YY(O)Y

Community and Population Bases in Planning County Library Services. Harold Hoffsommer and Paul Houser, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland. NN(Dec. 47)N

Regional Land Tenure Research Project. Harold Hoffsommer, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland. YY(O)Y

Cooperative Farming in Saskatchewan, Canada. Henrik F. Infield, Rural Settlement Institute, Poughkeepsie, New York. YY(O)Y

Participation in Organized Activities in Kentucky. Harold F. Kaufman, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky. YY (Aug. 47)O

China's Economic History. Fenton Keyes, Skidmore College, Saratoga Springs, New York. YY(O)N

Trends over 35 Year Period of Town-Country Community Relations in Walworth County,

Wisconsin. J. H. Kolb, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin. YN(O)N

Human Geography of the Ramah Navaho Area, New Mexico. John Landgraf, New York University, New York, N.Y. YN(Sept. 47)N

An Experiment in Developing an Agricultural Extension Program. Olaf F. Larson, *et al.*, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York. NN(O)N

The Nature and Gravity of Farm Land Tenure Problems in China. Shu-Ching Lee, University of Maryland, Washington, D.C. YY(O)N

A Study of Rural School Reorganization in the State of Illinois. David E. Lindstrom, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois. YY(O)Y

A Study of Rural Social Organizations in Illinois. David E. Lindstrom, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois. YY(Sept. 47)N

An Analysis of the Factors Influencing School Attendance of Minnesota Farm Youth. Douglas G. Marshall, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, Minnesota. YY(O)Y

Relation of Ethnic Background of the Population to Contemporary Society in Rural Minnesota. Douglas G. Marshall, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, Minnesota. NN(Dec. 48)N

Medical Care and Health Services Among Rural People. C. Horace Hamilton, North Carolina State College, Raleigh, North Carolina. NN(O)O

Levels of Living in Rural and in Urban Areas of the United States. Walter C. McKain, Jr., Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Arlington, Virginia. YN(Dec. 47)N

The Social Impacts of Farm Mechanization on Oklahoma Agriculture. Robert T. McMillan, Oklahoma A. and M. College, Stillwater, Oklahoma, YO(Sept. 47)N

Medical Expenditures in Rural-Farm Households in Missouri. Department of Rural Sociology, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri. YN(Sept. 47)N

Distribution of Physicians in Missouri. Department of Rural Sociology, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri. YY(O)N

Tuberculosis in Missouri. Department of Rural Sociology, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri. NN(1948)N

Maternal and Infant Care in Rural Missouri. Department of Rural Sociology, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri. NN(1948)N

Chronic Disease in Rural-Farm Households in Five Counties of Missouri. Department of Rural Sociology, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri. YN(1948)N

Rural Social Trends in Shelby County, Missouri. Department of Rural Sociology, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri. YY(O)N

The Health of Low-Income Farm Families in Southeast Missouri. Department of Rural Soci-

ology, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri. YY(O)N

Rural Social Areas in Missouri. Department of Rural Sociology, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri. YY(O)N

Sources of Information on Farming and Homemaking among Low-Income Farm Families of Missouri. Department of Rural Sociology, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri. YN (July 48)N

Indirect Communication of the Rural Population of Shelby County, Missouri. Department of Rural Sociology, University of Missouri, Columbia Missouri. YN (Sept. 47)N

Comparative Study of Norwegian Rural Communities in Norway and the United States. Peter A. Munch, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin. NN(1949)N

Conditions Affecting Retirement of Farm Operators in Minnesota. Lowry Nelson, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, Minnesota YY(O)Y

Institutional Factors in Land Tenure (in sample areas in the South-Central States). Meriton D. Oyler, Berea College, Berea, Kentucky. YY(O)Y

Some Factors Affecting the Vitality of 4-H Clubs in West Virginia. Ward F. Porter, Jr., University of West Virginia, Morgantown, West Virginia. NN(O)N

A Socio-economic Study of 141 Rural Negro Ministers in Virginia. Harry W. Roberts, Vir-

ginia State College, Petersburg, Virginia. NN(O)N

A Plan for the Study of a Puerto Rican Rural Community (Barrio). Jesús M. Rolón, Aibonito, Puerto Rico. YY(O)N

The Evolution of Land Tenure in La Laguna from Latifundia to Collectivized Ejidos. Clarence Senior, University of Puerto Rico, Rio Piedras, Puerto Rico. YY(O)Y

Social Effects of the Mechanization of Agriculture. T. Lynn Smith, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana. NN(O)N

The Social and Economic Effects of Consumer Cooperatives on Community and Family Life. W. J. Tudor, Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa. NN(July 48)N

Rural Social Organization in Litchfield County, Connecticut. Henry W. Riecken, Jr. and N. L. Whetten, U. S. Dept. of Agriculture and University of Connecticut respectively, Storrs, Conn. YY(O)Y

Occupational Diversity in Rural Connecticut. N. L. Whetten, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Connecticut. YN(O)Y

Rural Mexico. N. L. Whetten, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Connecticut. YY(O)Y

Leadership and Social Structure. James E. White, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York. YN(Dec. 47)Y

Rural Leadership in War and Peace. Sanford Winston, North Carolina State College, Raleigh, North Carolina. YY(O)Y

V. SOCIAL PROBLEMS

Social Aspects of Public Health and Labor Health Security in Relation to Dental Care. Alfred J. Asgis, New York University, New York, N.Y. YN(Nov. 47)N

Social Emphasis in the Teaching of Public Health Dentistry in American Dental Schools. Alfred J. Asgis, New York University, New York, N.Y. YY(O)Y

The Future of Inter-American Economic Relations. Richard F. Behrendt, Colgate University, Hamilton, New York. YN(Oct. 47)Y

Socio-economic Adjustments of Japanese-Americans in Southern California. Leonard Bloom and Ruth Riemer, University of California, Los Angeles, California. NN(July 48)N

Changes in Race Reactions in the United States Between 1927 and 1947. Emory S. Bogardus, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California. YN (Sept. 47)N

History of the National Conference of Social Work. Frank J. Bruno, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri. YN(Sept. 47)N

Historical Aspects of Divorce. Edward R. Callahan, S.J., Weston College, Weston, Massachusetts, YN (Oct. 47)Y

Study of Negro-White Adjustment. Walter R.

Chivers, Morehouse College, Atlanta, Georgia. NN(Aug. 48)N

Farm Housing Needs in Minnesota. Vernon Davies, University of Mississippi, University, Mississippi. YY(O)Y

Mississippi Housing Needs and Problems. Vernon Davies, University of Mississippi, University, Mississippi. YY(O)Y

Comparison of Farm Housing Factors Among the States. Vernon Davies, University of Mississippi, University, Mississippi. YY(O)Y

Adolescent Adjustment Problems as Reflected by Student Autobiographies. Barbara R. Day, State College of Washington, Pullman, Washington. YY(O)Y

Some Significant Social Factors in Sex Offenders Among Negro Females. Mary H. Diggs, Hunter College, New York, N.Y. YY(O)N

Acute Alcoholic Episodes Among Women—A Study of 50 Women Examined by the Psychiatric Institute of the Municipal Court of Chicago. Wendell L. East, Chicago Committee on Alcoholism, Chicago, Illinois. NN(Sept. 47)N

Critical History of Public Affairs and the YMCA since 1844. (Tentative title.) Galen M.

Fisher, 850 Cragmont Avenue, Berkeley, California. YY(O)Y

Juvenile Runaways to Detroit During the War Years. Ralph C. Fletcher, University of Michigan, Detroit, Michigan. YY(O)N

A Study of the Evolution of the Jewish Social Settlement Movement. Julian L. Greifer, Neighborhood Center, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. YN (Sept. 47)N

Culture Conflicts in Rural Ethnic Groups. F. Eugene Heilman, University of Wisconsin, Elroy, Wisconsin. NN (Sept. 47)N

The Involvements of Social Institutions in the Causation of Social Problems. Abbott P. Herman, University of Redlands, Redlands, California. YY(O)Y

Trends in American Social Work Since World War I. Norman D. Humphrey, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan. YN(Dec. 47)N

The Welfare Problems of Rural Connecticut: A Reconnaissance Study. J. L. Hypes, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Connecticut. YN (O)N

Fighting Prejudice. Bernard Lander, Hunter College, Brooklyn, New York. NN(O)O

Remnants of Personal Unfreedom in Southeast Asia. Bruno Lasker, Southeast Asia Institute, New York, N.Y. YY(O)N

Content of Courses in Social Problems. Alfred M. Lee and Elizabeth B. Lee, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan. YN(Sept. 47)N

Strategy for the Control of Inter-Group Discrimination. R. M. McIver, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YN(July 47)Y

Recent Trends in Group Medicine in the United States. Edward C. McDonagh, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma. YN (Nov. 47)N

Studies of Aid to the Needy Blind in Selected States. Evelyn C. McKay, American Foundation for the Blind, New York, N.Y. NN (Nov. 47)O

Work Experience of Ex-patients in an Urban Sheltered Work Shop for the Tuberculous. Robert L. McNamara, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C. YY(O)Y

The Theory of Social Problems. Francis E. Merrill, Dartmouth College, Hanover, New Hampshire. YY(Jan. 48)Y

Legal and Social Effects of Legalizing Sterilization. Clement S. Mihanovich, St. Louis University, St. Louis, Missouri. YY(O)Y

The Negro in World War II and Implications for Status Changes. Nina E. Mueller, 2913 W. Cantey, Fort Worth, Texas. YY(O)N

Unemployment Compensation Laws in the United States. Earl E. Muntz, New York University, New York, N.Y. NN(Oct. 47)Y

Development of Social Insurance in the United States. Earl E. Muntz, New York University, New York, N.Y. NN(Oct. 47)Y

Expenditures during 1946 by Health and Welfare Agencies in St. Louis and St. Louis County. Edward B. Olds, Social Planning Council of St. Louis and St. Louis County, St. Louis, Missouri. YN(Sept. 47)Y

Survey of Board Members of Welfare Agencies in St. Louis. Edward B. Olds, Social Planning Council of St. Louis and St. Louis County, St. Louis, Missouri. NN(Oct. 47)Y

Attitude towards St. Louis Community Chest as Related to Various Population Characteristics. Edward B. Olds, Social Planning Council of St. Louis and St. Louis County, St. Louis, Missouri. NN(O)N

Forecast of Amount of Hospital Expansion and Rebuilding Needed in St. Louis by 1960. Edward B. Olds, Social Security Planning Council of St. Louis and St. Louis County, St. Louis, Missouri. YN(O)Y

Group Reaction to a One-Man Invasion. Charles H. Page, Smith College, Northampton, Massachusetts. NN(Nov. 47)N

A Study of Personal and Social Adjustment of Old People for the Homes for Aged. Ju Shu Pan, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. OO(O)O

Work Relief in New York State, 1931-1935. Alexander L. Radomski, U. S. Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C. YY(O)Y

Pastor's Evaluation of Pressing Social Problems. Carl F. Reuss, Capital University, Columbus, Ohio. YN(Aug. 47)N

Sociological Aspects of the Problem of Alcoholism. John W. Riley, Jr., Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey. YN(Aug. 47)N

Summer Occupations of Virginia State College Students. Harry W. Roberts, Virginia State College, Petersburg, Virginia. YN(Dec. 47)N

A Study of the Personal Adjustments of Maladjusted Children Studied in A Child Study Home in 1930 and Who Were Cared for by Various Social Agencies. (Tentative title.) William F. Schreiter, Tufts College, Medford, Massachusetts. YN(Oct. 47)N

A Study of 1,000 Unsuccessful Careers. A. Warren Stearns, Tufts College, Medford, Massachusetts. YN(O)O

Psychiatric Problems of Old Age. A. Warren Stearns, Tufts College, Medford, Massachusetts. YY(O)O

The Dallas Negro Chamber of Commerce, A Study of a Negro Institution. Virginia Strange, 5418 Bonita Avenue, Dallas, Texas. YY(O)N

A Sociological Study of Internment. Elizabeth H. Vaughn, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. YY(O)Y

The Concept of "Pauperization" in Social Welfare Literature. Theodore C. Weiler, University of Maine, Orono, Maine. YN(O)N

A Criticism of Army Personnel Practices. Max

Weiner, New York University, New York, N.Y. YY(O)N

The Pathology of Our Inverted Sense of Social Ethics In Our Post-War Era. Max Weiner, New York University, New York, N.Y. YY(O)N

General Assistance in North Carolina. Ellen Winston, North Carolina State Board of Public Welfare, Raleigh, North Carolina. YN(Sept. 47)N

Social Aspects of Public Housing. Sanford Winston, North Carolina State College, Raleigh, North Carolina. YY(O)Y

The Theory of Social Problems and Adjustment. Verne Wright, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. YN(O)N

The Sociologist as a Public Figure. R. Richard Wohl, New York University, Brooklyn, N.Y. YY(O)N

VI. THE COMMUNITY

Integrated Participation As A Solution To Intercultural Relations. Burt W. Aginsky, College of the City of New York, New York, N.Y. YY(O)Y

The Role of Leadership in the Integration of Cities. Robert C. Angell, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan. NN(Nov. 47)N

Community Welfare Work. Mell H. Atchley, Fairmont State College, Fairmont, West Virginia. ON(O)N

Drinking Customs in American Communities. Selden D. Bacon, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut. YY(1948)N

Studies in Acculturation and Urbanization in Southern California. Ralph L. Beals and Leonard Bloom, University of California, Los Angeles, California. NN(O)N

Experiences of Selected Communities with Community Improvement Projects. Howard W. Beers, and M. Taylor Matthews, University of Kentucky, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Lexington, Kentucky, Washington, D.C. NN(Nov. 47)N

The Mestizos of South Carolina. Brewton Berry, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. YO(O)N

A Sociological Analysis of the People of Panama and the Canal Zone. John Biesanz, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. YN(Dec. 47)N

Church-Community Relationships in the South. Gordon W. Blackwell, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. YY(O)Y

Analysis of Philosophy, Methods and Procedures in Community Organization and Local Planning in the United States. Gordon W. Blackwell, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. YN(Sept. 48)N

The Trailer College Community: A Study of Mobility and Stability. Lee M. Brooks and Mary L. Elmendorf, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. OO(1947)O

The Southeast and the Cooperative Movement. Lee M. Brooks and Joseph S. Rowland, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. OO(June 47)O

Need Analysis in Housing. Joseph H. Bunzel,

Fisk University, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. YN(Sept. 47)N

The Application of Aerial Photography to Ecological Mapping. Theodore Caplow, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota. YN(O)O

Growth of Cooperatives in Southern California. Glen E. Carlson, University of Redlands, Redlands, California. NN(1948)N

New Techniques in Community Organizations. Glen E. Carlson, University of Redlands, Redlands, California. NN(Feb. 48)N

Content of A Course in "The Community." Allen D. Edwards, Winthrop College Rock Hill, South Carolina. NN(Sept. 47)N

Community Studies of Cincinnati. Lois Elliott, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio. YN(O)N

A Census Tract Street Directory for Hamilton County, Ohio. Lois Elliott, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio. NN(Mar. 48)N

Census Tract Street Directory for Cincinnati (Revision). Lois Elliott, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio. YN(Oct. 47)Y

Rural Organizations. This study is being carried on in 24 selected counties representative of each of the major types of farming areas. Douglas Ensminger, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C. YY(Sept. 47)Y

A Survey of Manufacturers, Wholesalers, and Retailers, and Their Understanding and Application of the New York Equal Pay for Equal Work Law. Thomas R. Fisher, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York. YN(July 47)O

Community Assets in Selected Utah Communities. Jos. A. Geddes, Utah State Agricultural College, Logan, Utah. NN(July 48)N

Influence of Jewishness upon Community near Hayattsville, Maryland. Meyer Greenberg, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland. NN(1948)N

Differential Social Change in a Mexican Town. Norman S. Hayner, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington. YY(O)N

A Comparative Study of All-Negro Communities in the United States. Mozell C. Hill, Atlanta University, Atlanta, Georgia. YY(O)N

Community Organization and Planning.

Arthur Hillman, Roosevelt College, Chicago, Illinois. YN(Sept. 47)N

Participation in Urban Consumers Cooperatives. Arthur Hillman, Roosevelt College, Chicago, Illinois. NN(Mar. 48)N

Tecolotlan, Jalisco—The Cultural Background of the Mexican Immigrant. Norman D. Humphrey, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan. NN(June 48)N

"Tobacco Folk"—A Portrayal of Life in Pittsylvania County, Virginia. Dorothy Jones, Winthrop College, South Carolina. YY(O)Y

Tennessee: A Social Study. W. B. Jones, Jr., and W. E. Cole, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee. YN(June 48)O

Community Problems of the Aging Population. H. Krans, Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania. YY(O)N

Participation in Group Work Agencies, Louisville, Kentucky. Robert I. Kutak, University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky. YN(June 47)Y

The Chinese in the Rocky Mountain States. Rose Hum Lee, Roosevelt College, Chicago, Illinois. YY(O)N

Rural Community Self-Analysis. David E. Lindstrom and A. T. Anderson, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois. YO(O)N

Colonization Possibilities in Latin America. Charles P. Loomis, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan. YN(1948)N

Factors Related to the Growth of Communism and Nazism in Germany. Charles P. Loomis, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan. YY(O)Y

The Social Organization of Planned Housing Communities. Robert K. Merton and Patricia J. Salter, Bureau of Applied Social Research, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YN(Dec. 47)N

Social And Economic Adjustments of the Japanese Minority in Seattle Since Evacuation. S. Frank Miyamoto, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington. YN(1948)N

Analysis of Leisure Time Activities of High School Students in a Middle Class Suburb. Edward B. Olds, Social Planning Council of St. Louis and St. Louis County, St. Louis, Missouri. YN(O)N

VII. MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY

Marriage and the Families of University Graduates. W. A. Anderson, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York. YY(O)N

Marital Relationships of Americans with Panamanians in the Canal Zone and in Panama. John Biesanz, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. NN(O)N

A Conceptual Framework for Problems of Family Disorganization. Herbert A. Bloch, St. Lawrence University, Canton, New York. YN(July 47)N

Centripetal Effect of Premature Sub-Division of Urban Lands. James C. S. Patton, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois. YY(O)N

A Study of the Social and Economic Effects of City Planning in Illinois. James C. S. Patton, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois. YY(O)N

The Little College Community. E. C. Paustian, Bethany College, Bethany, West Virginia. NN(O)N

Civic Participation and Apathy in a Small New England City. Arnold M. Rose, Bennington College, Bennington, Vermont. NN(Aug. 47)N

Variations in Living Conditions and Social Organization within the South East Tropical Rainforest of Mexico. Clarence Senior, University of Puerto Rico, Rio Piedras, Puerto Rico. YY(O)N

Social Structure in the British West Indies. George E. Simpson, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pennsylvania. YN(Sept. 47)N

Social Characteristics of Community Full-Members of a Metropolitan Suburb. Luke M. Smith, University of Arizona, Tucson, Arizona. YN(Jan. 48)O

Relations between the Territorial Structuring and the Local Government of a Metropolitan Suburb. Luke M. Smith, University of Arizona, Tucson, Arizona. YN(July 47)O

Studies in Community Leadership. Theodore W. Sprague, Colgate University, Hamilton, New York. NN(O)N

A Survey of Boys' Interests in Group Work Agencies. T. E. Sullinger, Municipal University of Omaha, Omaha, Nebraska. OO(Oct. 47)O

Intia-Urban Mobility in Omaha. T. E. Sullinger, Municipal University of Omaha, Omaha, Nebraska. OO(Oct. 47)O

A Survey of Meridian, Mississippi to Discover Certain Religio-Socio-Economic Factors. W. A. Tyson, Central Methodist Church, Meridian, Mississippi. NN(Dec. 47)N

Acculturation and Community Structure. John Useem and Ruth Useem, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin. YN(Dec. 47)N

Attitudes Towards Change in a Rurban Community. S. Kirson Weinberg, Whitman College, Walla Walla, Washington. YN(Sept. 47)N

Typology of Japanese-American Families and their Differential Adaptation to Evacuation, Relocation, and Resettlement. Leonard Bloom, University of California, Los Angeles, California. YN(Sept. 47)N

Post-War Family Problems: 1945-1947. James H. S. Bossard, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. YY(Dec. 47)N

Adopting a Child. Lee M. Brooks with Evelyn C. Brooks, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. YY(O)Y

The Marital Process. L. Guy Brown, Rhode Island State College, Kingston, Rhode Island. YY(O)N

A Survey of Student Opinion in the Field of Courtship and Marriage. Harold T. Christensen, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah. YO(O)N

Married Men in College. Rev. Wm. R. Clark, O. P., Providence College, Providence, Rhode Island. NN(Oct. 47)N

Traditional and Developmental Conceptions of Fatherhood. Rachel A. Elder, Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa. YN(July 47)N

Studies in the Psychology of Human Love. Albert Ellis, 2505 University Avenue, New York, N.Y. YY(O)N

Marmanides' Codification of Jewish Family Law. Ephraim Fischoff, American International College, Springfield, Massachusetts. YN(Dec. 47)N

Preliminary Study of the Factors Associated with Non-Marriage. Robert G. Foster, Merrill Palmer School, Detroit, Michigan. YN(1947)N

A Study of Attitudes Toward Homemaking by Professional Non-Married Women, Professional Married Women, and Non-College Women. Robert G. Foster, Merrill Palmer School, Detroit, Michigan. NN(O)O

The Relationship Between Occupational Success or Failure, and Family Success and Failure. Robert G. Foster, Merrill Palmer School, Detroit, Michigan. NN(O)O

Class Differences in Broken Marriages. Paul C. Glick, Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C. YN(Nov. 47)N

Current Developments in the American Family. Paul C. Glick, Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C. YN(Nov. 47)N

Childhood and Adolescent Factors in Adult Mental Breakdown. Virginia M. Haradon, University of Omaha, Omaha, Nebraska. YY(O)N

Social Factors Precipitating Domestic Discord in Marriages of Psychiatric Patients. Virginia M. Hearadon, University of Omaha, Omaha, Nebraska. YN(Jan. 48)N

Kinship Study. Mary Henry (Gibbs) (Sister) Rosary College, River Forest, Illinois. YN(O)O

Intra-Family Action Pattern of Farm Families. Reuben Hill, Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa. NN(O)N

Families Under Stress: Adjustment to the Crises of War Separation and Reunion. Reuben Hill, Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa. YN(Dec. 47)N

Adjustment Problems of Overseas Wives in Chicago. Arthur Hillman, Roosevelt College, Chicago, Illinois. YN(Oct. 47)N

The West Indian Negro Family in Detroit. Norman D. Humphrey, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan. NN(Sept. 48)N

Factors Making for Success or Failure in

Marriage Among Negroes in a Southern City. Charles E. King, Bennett College, Greensboro, North Carolina. NN(July 48)N

A Study of the Cana Conference Movement. John C. Knott, Catholic University, Washington, D.C. YN(July 47)Y

The Individual and his Sex Roles—A Study of Factors Associated with Certain Contrasting Attitudes Towards the Feminine Role on the Part of Women Undergraduates. Mirra Komarovsky, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. NN(Nov. 47)N

Types of Broken Homes and Adolescent Adjustment. Eileen P. Kuhns, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York. YY(O)N

Evaluation of a College Marriage Course. Judson T. Landis, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan. YN(Nov. 47)N

In-Law Relationships. Judson T. Landis, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan. YN(Nov. 47)N

Problems Involved in College Marriages. Judson T. Landis, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan. YN(Nov. 47)N

Attitudes on Courtship, Marriage and Family Living. Judson T. Landis, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan. YN(Nov. 47)N

Mixed Religious Marriages. Judson T. Landis, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan. YN(Nov. 47)N

Rural and Urban Family Attitudes in Two Generations. Paul H. Landis, State College of Washington, Pullman, Washington. YN(1947)N

Some Aspects of Chinese Family Structure and the Problem of Industrialization. Marion J. Levy, Jr., Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass. YY(O)N

The Father in the American Family. John Lobb, Mount Holyoke College, South Hadley, Massachusetts. YN(O)O

Education in the Family. John Lobb, Mount Holyoke College, South Hadley, Massachusetts. YY(O)O

Marital Predictive Items Derived from a Comparison of a Divorced and a Happily Married Sample. Harvey J. Locke, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California. YN(Dec. 47)N

A Study of the Adjustment of Divorced Persons in Subsequent Marriages. Harvey J. Locke, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California. YN(Nov. 47)N

Dating as an Education Process in American Society. Samuel H. Lowrie, Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, Ohio. YN(O)N

A Study of Rural Intermarriage. Simon Marson, Queens College, Flushing, New York. YY(O)N

The Marital Adjustment of Twins. Harriet

and Ernest Mowrer, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois. NN(Nov. 47)N

The Sociology of Aging. Harriet R. Mowrer, 727 Monticello Place, Evanston, Illinois. NN(1947)N

Personality and Cultural Factors in Dating and Courtship Behavior. Meyer F. Nimkoff and Arthur L. Wood, Bucknell University, Lewisburg, Pennsylvania. YN(July 47)N

Role of Women in the Leadership of Women's Colleges. Meyer F. Nimkoff and Arthur L. Wood, Bucknell University, Lewisburg, Pennsylvania. YN(July 47)N

Factors Influencing Youths' Adjustment to Parents. Ivan Nye, State College of Washington, Pullman, Washington. YN(Sept. 47)N

Interracial Marriage. Constantine Panunzio, University of California Los Angeles, California. YY(O)N

Marriage and Mate Selection, with Special Reference to Marriages in the Madison, Wisconsin, Community in 1937-38, 1940-41 and 1943. A. Philip Sundal, Wisconsin State Planning Board, Madison, Wisconsin. YN(1948)N

Comparison of a Sample of Middle Class Illinois Families with a Sample of Canadian Middle Class Families. C. W. Topping, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, B.C. YN(Sept. 48)N

The Psychopathology in Love and Marriage. Max Weiner, New York University, Brooklyn, N.Y. YY(O)N

Alimony, Women and Civilization. Dr. Charles Wilner, 175 W. 72 Street, New York, N.Y. YY(1947)N

Social and Personality Characteristics of Courtship. Robert F. Winch, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee. NN(O)N

A Study of Good Families. Carle C. Zimmerman, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass. YN(June 48)N

VIII. POLITICAL SOCIOLOGY

Russian Bolshevism as a Social Movement. J. Howell Atwood, Knox College, Galesburg, Illinois. NN(O)N

Social Conditions of Administrative Conduct in the Higher Federal Service. Reinhard Bendix, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado. YY(O)N

Racial Discrimination in Federal Employment: A Study in Bureaucracy. William C. Bradbury, Jr., National Committee on Segregation in the Nation's Capital, Washington, D.C. YN(Sept. 47)N

Social Policy in Housing and Planning. Joseph H. Bunzel, Fisk University, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. YN(O)N

Problems of Euro-American Acculturation. Joseph H. Bunzel, Fisk University, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. YY(O)N

The Struggle for Power in the United States. Oliver C. Cox, Tuskegee Institute, Alabama. YN(Sept. 48)N

National Organizations and American Housing. N. J. Demerath, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. YN(Dec. 47)N

The Planning of Social Action Programs. Lewis A. Dexter, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida. YY(O)O

Measuring Fitness for Self-Government. Stuart C. Dodd, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington. YY(O)O

A Systematic Comparison of the Social Organization and Cultures of the United States, Great Britain, France, and the U.S.S.R. Joseph K. Folsom, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York, YN(Jan. 48)N

Relationship of Private Organizations to the

U. S. Government's Information and Cultural Program Abroad. Byron L. Fox, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York. YY(O)N

Studies in the Sociology of Political Parties and Social Movements. Rudolf Heberle, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana. NN(O)N

A Study of the Legal Aspects of Segregation in the Nation's Capital. Elmer W. Henderson, Howard University, Washington, D.C. YN(Aug. 47)N

Ideology in a TVA Community. Walter Hirsch, Queens College, Jackson Heights, New York. YY(O)N

Mobilizing Public Opinion in the Soviet Union. Alex Inkeles, Columbia University, Long Island City, New York. NN(Mar. 48)N

The Cooperative Commonwealth Federation (CCF) Movement in Saskatchewan. S. M. Lipset, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada. YN(Sept. 47)N

Foreign Political Activity Among Poles in the U. S., 1939-1946: A Study in the Political Aspect in Assimilation. Stephen W. Mamchur, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan. YN(Feb. 48)N

Foreign Propaganda Control in the United States. Stephen K. Mamchur, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan. YN(Feb. 48)N

The Evolution of Soviet Political Ideals and Institutions. Barrington Moore, Jr., University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. YN(Apr. 48)N

Political Behavior in Harlem. (Working title.) John A. Morsell Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YN(Oct. 47)N

Germany under Military Government. Franz

L. Neumann *et al.*, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YY(O)N

The Buffer Society—Europe Between the Great Powers. Franz L. Neumann, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YN(Feb. 48)N

The Problem of Political Democracy in Modern China. Maurice T. Price, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan. YN(O)N

Sociology of Unorthodox Political Methods. Joseph S. Roucek, Hofstra College, Hempstead, New York. YY(O)N

TVA and the Grass Roots. Philip Selznick, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, Minnesota. YY(O)N

Research and Administration in Economic Reconstruction. Clarence Senior, University of Puerto Rico, Rio Piedras, Puerto Rico. YY(O)Y

The Caribbean Commission and the West Indian Conference: An Attempt at Inter-Imperial Cooperation on a Regional Basis. Clarence Senior, University of Puerto Rico, Rio Piedras, Puerto Rico. YN(O)N

The Merit System and the Mores. Waldo Sommers, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N.Y. YY(O)N

The Social Implications of Atomic Energy. Harold H. Story, Adult Education Division, Los Angeles Public Schools, Los Angeles, California. NN(Oct. 47)N

A Study of Modern Political Radicalism. Francis X. Sutton, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. YN(1948)N

Reactions of Germans and Japanese to Aspects of the Program of Military Government.

IX. METHODS OF RESEARCH (INCLUDING SOCIOOMETRY)

A Standard Method for Continuous Content Analysis of Social Interaction in Small Groups. Robert F. Bales, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. YN(O)O

Measurement of Impact of Mass Communication Media. Raymond E. Bassett, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington. NN(June 48)N

The Measurement of Adjustment in Marriage. Charles E. Bowerman, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington. YN(Oct. 47)N

The Sociological Adequacy of a Group of Southeastern Urban Studies. Lee M. Brooks and Sara E. Smith, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. YY(O)Y

National Survey of Jewish Community Centers. Werner J. Cahnman, with Oscar Janowsky, 212 East 13th Street, New York, N.Y. YY(O)Y

Social and Cultural Survey of Beaumont, Texas. Maurine M. Cason, Lamar College, Beaumont, Texas. YY(O)N

Experimental Designs in Sociological Research. F. Stuart Chapin, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota. YY(O)Y

Donald R. Taft, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois. YN(Sept. 47)N

The Social Science of International Relations. Donald R. Taft, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois. NN(1948)N

Censorship of the Press in the United States: A Study in Culture Change and Social Control. Edmund H. Volhart, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut. YY(O)N

The Cooperative Commonwealth Federation: A Social Movement. Marion A. Waggoner, University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Oklahoma. YY(O)Y

Federal Economic Regulation and Social Acceptance. R. Richard Wohl, New York University, Brooklyn, New York. YY(O)N

Sociological Research and Public Planning. R. Richard Wohl, New York University, Brooklyn, New York. YY(O)O

A Preliminary Study of the Composition of Congress. Kurt H. Wolff, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. YN(Aug. 47)N

Student Attitudes toward Soviet Russia and Communism. Fred R. Yoder, State College of Washington, Pullman, Washington. YN(Oct. 47)O

Changes of National Identity Among Immigrants from Eastern and Central Europe in the United States. John Zadrozny, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota. YN(June 48)N

American Regional Personalities. Carle C. Zimmerman, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. YY(O)N

The Impact of Living Arrangements on the Family. John P. Dean, 457 West 21st Street, New York, N.Y. NN(Aug. 48)N

Methodology of the Informal Case Procedure. John P. Dean, 457 West 21st Street, New York, N.Y. NN(Aug. 48)N

An Alphabet of Meanings in Ten Dimensional Elements. Stuart C. Dodd, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington. YY(O)Y

Demoscopv. Stuart C. Dodd, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington. YY(Dec. 47)N

Institutional Development as Illustrated by an Historical Survey of Disaster Relief Services of the American Red Cross. Mabel A. Elliott, American National Red Cross, Washington, D.C. YY(Dec. 47)N

Program of Ethnological Field Studies of the Modern Culture of the South. John P. Gillin, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. OO(O)N

General Survey of Japanese Cultural Patterns. Douglas G. Haring, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N.Y. NN(O)N

A Projective Technique for the Study of Intergroup Antagonism. Paul K. Hatt, with B. N. Desenberg, College Study in Intergroup Relations, 5272 Second Avenue, Detroit, Michigan. YY(O)Y

A Study of Occupational Status in the United States. Paul K. Hatt, with Cecil C. North, College Study in Intergroup Relations, 5272 Second Avenue, Detroit, Michigan. YN(Sept. 47)N

Frederic LePlay's Contribution to Sociology: His Method. Mary Edward Healy (Sister), College of St. Catherine, St. Paul, Minnesota. YY(O)Y

A Veterans' Cooperative Land Settlement and Its Sociometric Structure. Henrik F. Infield, Rural Settlement Institute, Poughkeepsie, New York. YY(O)Y

Matador and Macedonia: A Study in Group Comparison. Henrik F. Infield, Rural Settlement Institute, Poughkeepsie, New York. YN(May 48)N

Radio Broadcasting in the Soviet Union. Alex Inkeles, Columbia University, Long Island City, N.Y. YN(July 47)O

Techniques of Community Research. Patricia L. Kendall, Bureau of Applied Social Research, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. NN(Sept. 48)N

The Applicability of Sociological Techniques in Developing Standards for the Products of Mass Media. Joseph T. Klapper, Bureau of Applied Social Research, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. NN(Jan. 48)N

Factor Analysis of Qualitative Attributes. Paul F. Lazarsfeld, Bureau of Applied Social Research, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YY(O)Y

Advanced Social Research. Paul F. Lazarsfeld, Bureau of Applied Social Research, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YY(O)Y

Radio and Society: The American Federation of Musicians and Technological Unemployment.

Anders S. Lunde, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YN(Dec. 47)N

Sociometric Study of the United Nations Organization. J. L. Moreno, Sociometric Institute, New York, N.Y. YY(O)Y

The Measurement of Discrimination in Urban Employment. Edward N. Palmer, Fisk University, Nashville, Tennessee. YY(O)N

An Attempt to Epitomize Chinese Social Philosophy—A Critique of Howard Becker's Historical and Typological Interpretation Based on Creel, Granet, and Others. Maurice T. Price, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan. YY(O)N

The Sociology of the Editing. Joseph S. Roucek, Hofstra College, Hempstead, New York. YY(O)N

Construction of Index Numbers for Analysis of Social Security Programs. Raymond F. Sletto, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota, YY(O)N

Survey of the City of Ypsilanti. Mehran K. Thompson, Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan. YY(O)N

The Sociometry of Everyday Life. Zerka Toeman, Sociometric Institute, New York, N.Y. YY(O)Y

Variable-Sequence Causation of Changes in the Program of the Iowa Agriculture Extension Service. W. J. Tudor, Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa. YY(O)N

Ethnic Factors in the Dynamics of Population. Bessie B. Wessel, Connecticut College, New London, Connecticut. YN(O)N

Methodological Requirements of a Meaningful Sociological Terminology. R. Richard Wohl, New York University, Brooklyn, N.Y. YY(O)N

The Place of Value-Judgments in Sociological Research. R. Richard Wohl, New York University, Brooklyn, N.Y. YY(O)N

Administration and Procedure of Conference or Group Discussion Situations. Hobart N. Young, Stanford University, Stanford University, California. YY(O)N

X. EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

Teaching of Social and Environmental Factors in Medicine. Harriet M. Bartlett, Joint Committee on the Teaching of the Social and Environmental Factors in Medicine, 989 Memorial Drive, Cambridge, Massachusetts. YY(O)Y

The Problem of Individual Instruction and the Future of Our Schools. Raymond F. Bellamy, Florida State College for Women, Tallahassee, Florida. YY(O)N

Adult Education and University Extension in Encyclopedia of Educational Research. W. S. Bittner, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. YY(Jan. 48)N

Study of College Teaching of the Social Sci-

ences in the South. Gordon W. Blackwell, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. YY(O)N

An Evaluation of Introductory Sociology in Relation to Basic College Courses, Student Background and Student Plans. Wilbur Brookover, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan. YN(Oct. 47)N

A Sociology of Education. Wilbur Brookover, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan. NN(1948)N

Criteria for Evaluating the Field Work of Students in the Social Sciences. Sophie T. Cambria, Hunter College, New York, N.Y. YN(Sept. 47)N

Is Teaching a Profession? Nathaniel Cantor, University of Buffalo, Buffalo, N.Y. YY(O)Y

Veteran-Non-Veteran Differences in Scholarly Performance and Attitudes toward Educational Objectives. John A. Claresen, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York. NN(O)N

Incentives and Administrative Problems and the Sociology of Education. Lewis A. Dexter, Roosevelt College, Chicago, Illinois. YN(Oct. 47)N

The Relationship between Undergraduate Courses of Study and Job Requirements after Graduation—Survey of University of Maryland Graduates in the Social Sciences. Jeanette S. Feldman, Sociology Club of the University of Maryland, University of Maryland, Washington, D.C. YY(O)Y

The Correlation of Graduate Performance in a School of Social Work with Age, Undergraduate Performance, and Length of Time between Undergraduate Degree and Admission into Graduate Study. Ralph C. Fletcher, University of Michigan, Detroit, Michigan. YN(July 47)N

The Community-Laboratory Technique of Teaching Selected Courses in Sociology. David M. Fulcomer, Drew University, Madison, New Jersey. NN(1948)N

The Relationships Between Adolescent Behavior and Class Position in a Middle Western Community. A. B. Hollingshead, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut. YY(O)N

Analysis of Developmental Records of 500 Nursery School Children. Ruth P. Koshuk, Bellflower School District, Bellflower, California. YY(O)Y

College Enrollment in Virginia. John L. Lancaster, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Virginia. YY(O)N

Attitudes and Problems of High School Seniors. Paul H. Landis, State College of Washington, Pullman, Washington. YN(1947)N

The Undergraduate Course in Sociology. Mary Ligouri (Sister, B.V.M.), Mundelein College, Chicago, Illinois. YY(O)N

A Socio-Economic Analysis of the Male Student Body at Indiana University, Spring, 1947. Raymond A. Mulligan, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. YN(Jan. 48)N

Sociology in the Curricula of a Selected Group of Colleges. C. J. Nuesse, The Catholic University of America. Washington, D.C. NN (July 48)N

Sinism—A Historical Critique of H. G. Creel's Case for its Pre-Confucian Indigeneity. Maurice T. Price, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan. YY(O)N

Making Foreign-Area Curriculums Feasible: Overcoming the Difficulties of Implementing the Foreign-Area Ideal on the Intermediate Level. Maurice T. Price, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan. YY(O)N

A Survey of Student Reactions to College Teaching. John W. Riley, Jr., and Bruce Ryan, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey. YO(1947)O

Trend Toward Equalization of Educational Opportunities in Rural Areas. J. F. Thaden, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan. NN(Nov. 47)N

Social Mobility in Finland, 1760-1940. Heikki Waris, University of Helsinki, Helsinki, Finland. YN(Dec. 48)N

Youth After Wars. Goodwin Watson, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YY(O)Y

Juvenile Delinquency During Summer Vacation Months. William W. Wattenberg, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan.

The Great Politico-Economic Danger in the Adoption of a Rigid Personnel System. Max Weiner, New York University, Brooklyn, N.Y. YY(O)N

The Secret of Vocational Adjustment in a Competitive Society. Max Weiner, New York University, Brooklyn, N.Y. YY(O)N

The Use of the Personal Document as an Aid to Teaching. Forrest L. Weller, University of South Dakota, Vermillion, South Dakota. YN (Nov. 47)N

An Analysis of Community Councils in Pittsburgh and Allegheny County. Verne Wright, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. NN(Nov. 47)N

Factors Influencing Admission to College. Julian L. Woodward, Elmo Roper, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, N.Y. YN(O)N

The Effect of the War on Veterans now Enrolled in Universities. Kennett W. Yaeger, Kent State University, Canton, Ohio. YN(O)N

Sociometric Analysis of a Fifth Grade. Leslie D. Zeleny, Colorado State College of Education, Greeley, Colorado. YN(Nov. 47)Y

XI. INDUSTRIAL SOCIOLOGY

Occupational Choice. Sidney Axelrad, Graduate Faculty of Political and Social Science, The New School, New York, N.Y. YY(O)N

Studies of Industrial Relations: A Critical Appraisal. Reinhard Bendix, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado. NN(Aug. 47)N

Delta Resources Study. Mrs. Dorothy Lee

Black, Delta Council, Stoneville, Mississippi. NN(June 48)N

The Tradition of Opportunity and the Aspirations of Auto Workers. Ely Chinoy, Social Science Research Council, 220 Custer Avenue, Newark, N.J. YN(June 48)N

The Grievance Process: A Study of Union

Management Relations (Monograph). Robert Dubin, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. YY(O)N

Union-Management Relations in Mass Production Industries (Book)—Co-author. Robert Dubin, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. YY(O)Y

Factory Folkways; A Study of Institutional Structure and Change. John S. Ellsworth, Jr., Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut. YY(O)N

Occupational Attitudes. G. A. Elmer, Washington State College, Pullman, Washington. YN(Sept. 47)O

Protest Society: Social Irrationality in the Extra-Territorial, One-Sex Company Town. E. Gordon Erickson, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. YY(O)Y

Occupational Profile: Librarian. William H. Form, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio. YN(Oct. 47)N

The Personality of American Industrialists. F. Howard Forsyth, 701 Simpson, Greensboro, North Carolina. YN(O)N

The Fields and Organization of Industrial Sociology. F. Howard Forsyth, 701 Simpson, Greensboro, North Carolina. NN(O)N

Problems of Industrial Organization: Bureaucratic or Cultural? Alvin W. Gouldner, University of Buffalo, Buffalo, N.Y. YN(Nov. 47)N

Trade Unions and the Problem of Oligarchy. Alvin W. Gouldner, University of Buffalo, Buffalo, N.Y. YY(O)N

Occupations of Social Scientists. John B. Knox, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee. YN(Jan. 48)N

The Technological Development of the Cigar Manufacturing Industry. J. H. Korson, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Massachusetts. YY(O)N

Age of Industrial Workers in Virginia. John Littlepage Lancaster, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Virginia. YN(Aug. 47)N

An Analysis of the C.I.O. Union Counselling Program in the Chicago Area; with Special Reference to the Out-Plant Problems of the Worker and How They Are Handled Through Local Resources. Seymour Ralph Levin, 6023 S. Dorchester, Chicago (37), Illinois. YN(July 47)N

Social Images in Industrial Relations. Paul Meadows, Montana State University, Missoula, Montana. YN(Nov. 47)N

Montana. YN(Nov. 47)N

Changing Conceptions of Personality in Industrial Relations Literature. Paul Meadows, Montana State University, Missoula, Montana. YY(O)Y

The "Independent" Union. Henry J. Meyer, New York University, New York City. NN(O)O

The Measurement of Occupational Adjustment. Delbert C. Miller, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington, and William H. Form, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio. YN(Oct. 47)N

New York's Laundry Workers. Vera Miller, Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America, 15 Union Square, New York City. YY(O)N

Attitudes Toward Industrial Work in Newly Industrializing Areas. Wilbert E. Moore, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey. NN(July 48)N

Employee Education in a Public Utility. Richard T. Morris, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. NN(Aug. 47)Y

A Social and Psychological Analysis of the Foreman's Role. Charles W. Nelson, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. NN(Dec. 47)N

Experiment in Changing Factory Management. Donald Roy, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. YN(Jan. 48)N

The Veteran and His Readjustment Allowance. Erwin O. Smigel, New York University, New York City. YN(Oct. 47)N

The Occupational Ladder (A Study of Vertical Occupational Mobility in American Industry). Christopher Smith, Columbia University, New York City. YY(O)N

The Industrial Conditions of Negroes in Omaha. T. E. Sullinger, Municipal University of Omaha, Omaha, Nebraska. OO(Oct. 47)O

A Social Psychology of Industrial Attitudes. Melvin J. Vincent, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California. YN(O)O

Occupational Patterns in Cuyahoga County, Ohio. R. Clyde White, Western Reserve University, Cleveland 6, Ohio. YN(Oct. 47)N

Problems of Achieving Union-Management Cooperation. William F. Whyte, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. YN(1948)N

Industrial Sociology and Its Impact on the Economics of Wage Theory. R. Richard Wohl, New York University, 232 Vernon Avenue, Brooklyn 6, New York. YY(O)N

XII. CRIMINOLOGY

The Discontinuance of the Series on State Judicial Criminal Statistics. Harry Alpert, College of the City of New York, New York City. YY(O)N

Differences between Negro and White Delinquent Boys. Sidney Axelrad, Graduate Faculty of Political and Social Science, The New

School, 66 W. 12th St., New York City. YN(Oct. 47)N

The News Value of Crime: A Study of Crime Publicity in the Newspaper Press. Lee M. Brooks, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. YY(O)Y

A Study of Alabama Paroles. Morris G. Cald-

well, University of Alabama, University, Alabama. YN(Dec. 47)O

Prediction of the Success of Alabama Paroles. Morris G. Caldwell, University of Alabama, University, Alabama. YN(Dec. 47)O

Prediction of the Success of Alabama Probationers. Morris G. Caldwell, University of Alabama, University, Alabama. YN(Dec. 47)O

Critical Evaluation of the Work of the New York Prison Association—1844 to Date. Margaret Callaghan, St. Joseph College, West Hartford 7, Connecticut. NO(1948)O

The Office of Price Administration and the Black Market: A Study in Social Disorganization. Marshall B. Clinard, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin. YN(Sept. 47)N

Community and Family after Imprisonment: The Ex-Inmate's Attitude. Marshall B. Clinard, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin. NN(Nov. 47)N

A Study of Case Histories of Inmates at the California Institution for Men. William A. Cornell, Box 22, Evansville, Wisconsin. NO(O)O

Federal and Non-Federal Negro Juvenile Offenders. Mary Huff Diggs, Hunter College, New York, N.Y. YY(O)N

Auxiliary Punishments and Persons Convicted of Felonies. W. Anthony Gaines, Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College, Tallahassee, Florida. YN(Dec. 47)N

Capital Punishment—A Study of Capital Penalties in New York State. Israel Gerver, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. YN(Aug. 47)N

Civil Law as an Index of Social Differentiation. Frank E. Hartung, Wayne University, Detroit 1, Michigan. YN(Jan. 48)N

Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency in Maryland. Peter P. Lejins, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland. YY(O)N

Penological Philosophies Underlying Legislative Proposals in Massachusetts. Adolph Marcus, Boston University, Boston 21, Massachusetts. NN(1948)N

Conditioning Factors of Delinquency. Martin H. Neumeyer, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, 7, California. YY(O)N

The Criminality of Women. Otto Pollak, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Pennsylvania. YY(O)N

Studies in Delinquency Prevention. Edwin Powers, The Cambridge-Somerville Youth Study, 820 Massachusetts Avenue, Cambridge, Massachusetts. YN(1948)N

Impact of a Reformatory on Inmates. Walter C. Reckless and Edward J. Galway, Ohio State University, Columbus 10, Ohio. NN(47)N

Crime School: A Study in Institutional Sociology. Frederick Elliott Robin, American Civil Liberties Union, 170 Fifth Avenue, New York 10, N.Y. YY(O)N

Study on the Results of Probation. Dr. Jay Rumney, Research Division, Essex County Probation Department, Court House, Newark 2, New Jersey. YN(O)O

Research Problems in Predicting Criminal Recidivism and Other Behavior Following Institutional and Non-institutional Processing of Law Violators. Alfred C. Schnur, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. YY(O)N

The Prison Chaplain—Religion in the Correctional Institutions of New York State. Jacob Sodden, Rabbi of Woodside Jewish Center, 3950-60 St., Woodside, L.I., New York. YN(March 48)N

Sex Crime. A. Warren Stearns, Tufts College, Medford 55, Massachusetts. YO(O)Oct. 46

The Life and Crimes of Jesse Harding Pomeroy. A. Warren Stearns, Tufts College, Medford 55, Massachusetts. YN(O)O

Study of Post War Juvenile Delinquency in Omaha. T. E. Sullinger, Municipal University of Omaha, Omaha, Nebraska. NN(Oct. 47)N

White Collar Crime. Edwin H. Sutherland, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. YY(O)N

The Tinhorn: His Trials and Tribulations. Paul W. Tappan, New York University, New York, N.Y. YN(June 48)N

Delinquency. Paul W. Tappan, New York University, New York, N.Y. YN(June 48)N

Questions and Resolutions Drafted by the Eleven International Penitentiary Congresses, 1872-1935. Nagley K. Teeters, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. YY(O)N

Delinquency Among Only Children. William W. Wattenberg, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan. YN(Sept. 47)N

XIII. URBAN SOCIOLOGY AND ECOLOGY

Resettlement of Japanese-Americans in the Los Angeles Area. Leonard Bloom and Ruth Riener, University of California, Los Angeles 24, California. YN(Oct. 47)N

The Structure of the Metropolitan Community. Donald J. Bogue, Scripps Foundation, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. YN(Dec. 47)N

The Daytime Population of Central Business Districts. Gerald William Breese, University of

Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. YO(July 47)N

Ecological Distribution of New Residents in a City. Donald O. Cowgill, Municipal University of Wichita, Wichita, Kansas. YN(Sept. 47)N

The Social Effects of a Public Housing Project on Its Immediate Neighborhood. William L. J. Dee, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. NN(Dec. 47)N

The Ecology of the Southern City. N. J. Demerath (collaborating with H. W. Gilmore), University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. NN(Feb. 48)N

A Preliminary Study for the Construction of an Index of Urbanism. Hugo O. Engelmann, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan. YN(July 47)N

Rural Trade Centers in North Carolina, 1920-40. Abbott L. Ferriss, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. NN(June 48)N

A Master Sample of New York City. Charles V. Glock, Bureau of Applied Social Research, Columbia University, New York City. OO(O)O
Social Stratification in Southern Cities. Harold F. Kaufman, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky. NN(1948)N

John Welsey Powell: Regionalist. Paul Meadows, Montana State University, Missoula, Montana. YN(Sept. 47)N

The Decentralist Philosophy of Culture. Paul Meadows, Montana State University, Missoula, Montana. YY(O)Y

The Heavenly City of Modern Architecture. Paul Meadows, Montana State University, Missoula, Montana. YN(Aug. 47)Y

Psycho-cultural Factors in Mental Disorders. Ernest R. Mowrer, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois. YN(Nov. 47)N

Urban Home Ownership: A Socio-economic Analysis with Emphasis on Philadelphia. Henry M. Muller, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. YY(O)Y

The Age and Sex Structure of the Major

XIV. RACE, ETHNIC AND

The Function of the "Poor White" in Race Relations in Southern U.S. John O. Boynton, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina. YN(June 48)N

A Comparative Study of Two Organizations Concerned with Race Relations in Georgia. Lee M. Brooks, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. YO(Nov. 47)O

An Exploratory Study of Certain Mental Patterns of the South. Lee M. Brooks, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. YO(47)O

A Sociometric Study of Negro-White Relations in an Industrial Plant in a Border Community. Donald O. Cowgill, Municipal University of Wichita, Wichita, Kansas. NN(Oct. 47)N

Refugees in America. Maurice R. Davie, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut. YY(O)Y

Race and Nationality. Henry Pratt Fairchild, New York University, New York 3, N.Y. YY(O)Y

Group Processes in Race Relations. Clarence E. Glick, Tulane University, New Orleans 15, Louisiana. YN(1947)N

Metropolitan Districts of the United States. Wayne C. Neely, Hood College, Frederick, Maryland. YN(Sept. 47)N

The Compilation and Analysis of Social Statistics by City Blocks. Edward B. Olds, Social Planning Council of St. Louis and St. Louis County, 613 Locust Street, St. Louis 1, Missouri. YO(O)O

Residential Location of Negroes in a Large Segregated Metropolitan Community. Edward B. Olds, Social Planning Council of St. Louis and St. Louis County, 613 Locust Street, St. Louis 1, Missouri. YN(O)N

Housing the Home. Svend Riemer, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin. YY(O)N

Basic Ecological Patterning of American Cities: A Comparative Study. Calvin F. Schmid, University of Washington, Seattle 5, Washington. YO(O)O

Social Service Exchange Data as a Measure of Community Areas of Disorganization. Robert H. Talbert, Texas Christian University, Fort Worth, Texas. YN(47)N

The Ecology of Residential Areas in Madison, Wisconsin. John W. Teter, University of Wisconsin in Milwaukee, Milwaukee, Wisconsin. YY(O)N

Accommodation Groups in a Metropolitan Community. C. W. Topping, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, B. C., Canada. YN(48)N

Residential Changes of Ukrainian Immigrants in Minneapolis and St. Paul, c. 1900 to 1947. John Zadrozy, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota. YN(June 48)N

CULTURAL RELATIONS

The Position of Racial Groups in Occupational Structures. Clarence E. Glick, Tulane University, New Orleans 15, Louisiana. YY(O)N

Major Culture Traditions in American Rural Life. Walter R. Goldschmidt, University of California, Los Angeles 24, California. NN(47)N

The Negro Lawyer in Chicago. William Henry Hale, Bethune-Cookman College, Daytona Beach, Florida. YN(Aug. 48)N

A Study of Catholic Organized Activity in Race Relations in the United States. Rev. Thomas Harte, The Catholic University of America, Washington 17, D.C. YY(O)Y

Some Basic Patterning of Ethnic and Class Attitudes. Paul K. Hatt, The College Study in Intergroup Relations, 5272 2nd Ave., Detroit 2, Michigan. YN(Aug. 47)N

Interracial Relationships. Sister Mary Henry (Gibbs), Rosary College, River Forest, Illinois. YN(O)O

Negroes in the United States: A Critique of Periodical Literature. Mozell C. Hill, Atlanta, University, Atlanta, Georgia. YY(O)Y

AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL REVIEW

Anti-Jewish Attitudes Amongst Catholic College Students. John J. Kane, St. Joseph's College, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. YN(July 47)N

Peoples and Cultures of Indonesia. Raymond Kennedy, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut. YN(O)N

The Assumptions Underlying the Programs of Five National Organizations in the Field of Minority Group Relations. Elizabeth L. Lyman, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. YN(Sept. 47)N

Vocational Opportunities in Washington, D.C., for Negro Boys Who Do Not Complete High School. Paul Mundy, Catholic University, Washington, D.C. YN(Oct. 47)O

The Race Problem in the Modern World.

(Collaborator with Jitsuchi Masuoka). Edward N. Palmer, Fisk University, Nashville, Tennessee. YN(Sept. 47)N

Census of the Negro Population of New Brunswick, Including Pertinent Attitudinal Data on Integration. John W. Riley, Jr. (In collaboration with Charles F. Marden), Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey. NN(O)N

Innovations in American Culture. Edward L. Rose, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado. YN(July 47)N

The Integration of the Negro in Industry. Ralph H. Turner, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. NN(July 48)N

XV. SOCIOLOGY OF RELIGION

World Brotherhood: An Integrated World Religion. Joseph I. Arnold, State Teachers College, Bridgewater, Massachusetts. YY(O)Y

Roman Catholicism Among Panamanians. John Biesanz, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. YN(Nov. 47)N

The Negro Church in Chicago. Vattel Elbert Daniel, State Teachers College, Montgomery 1, Alabama. YN(June 47)N

Reliability of Prediction Ratings of Degree of Adjustment of Ministers of The Methodist Church to Their Profession. Douglas E. Jackson, Garrett Biblical Institute, Evanston, Illinois. YN(Feb. 48)N

The Rural Church in Kentucky. Harold F. Kaufman, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky. YN(1948)N

The Religious Ceremonies of the Cocopa Indians of the Colorado River Delta. William H. Kelly, Peabody Museum, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. YN(Jan. 48)N

Study of Ministerial Retirement and Recruitment Rates. Murray H. Leiffer, Garrett Biblical Institute, Evanston, Illinois. YN(Dec. 47)N

A Complete List of Classified Catholic Rural Parishes in U.S. Rt. Rev. L. G. Ligutti, National Catholic Rural Life Conference, Des Moines 12, Iowa. YO(O)Y

Religious Sectarianism in Southern Alberta; 1920-46. William E. Mann, United College, Winnipeg, Canada. YN(June 48)N

Factors Involved in the Participation and Non-participation of the Membership of a Metropolitan "Downtown" Church. Donald C. Marsh, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan. YY(O)N

Presbyterian Churches in Urban Areas. Everett L. Perry, Board of National Missions, Presbyterian Church in the U.S.A., 156 Fifth Avenue, New York 10, N.Y. NN(O)N

The Social Functions of Doctrinal Orthodoxy. Philip Selznick, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, Minnesota. NN(O)N

Socio-Economic Factors Operating in the Selection of Urban Church Officers. Frederick A. Shippey, Board of Missions, The Methodist Church, 2039 Maple Ave., Evanston, Illinois. YN(July 47)N

Age and Sex Factors in Urban Church Membership. Frederick A. Shippey, Board of Missions, The Methodist Church, 2039 Maple Avenue, Evanston, Illinois. YN(Sept. 47)N

A Comparative Study of Various Contemporary American Sects. Theodore W. Sprague, Colgate University, Hamilton, New York. NN(O)N

Social Activities of Omaha Penitent Churches. T. E. Sullinger, Municipal University of Omaha, Omaha, Nebraska. OO(Oct. 47)O

Religious and Racial Attitudes of 2,000 High School Students and 250 University Students. T. E. Sullinger, Municipal University of Omaha, Omaha, Nebraska. OO(Oct. 47)O

Christian Science and Ascetic Protestantism; A Study in the Sociology of Religion, Personality Type and Social Structure. Isidor Thorner, 5430 Carlin Street, Los Angeles 16, California. YN(O)N

Die Heroischen und Christlichen Elemente in Heliand und Beowulf. Charlotte A. Waggoner, University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Oklahoma. YY(O)N

XVI. PUBLIC OPINION

Opinions of Officers and Enlisted Men in the European Command Concerning THE STARS AND STRIPES. Morton F. Fosberg, War Department, Attitude Research Section, 7700 I &

E Group, APO 139, c/o P.M., New York. YY(O)Y

What the American Soldier Says about American Forces Network in Germany. Morton

F. Fosberg, War Department, Attitude Research Section, 7700 I & E Group, APO 139, c/o P.M., New York. YY(O)Y

Attitudes and Opinions of the American Soldier Towards the German Youth Activities Program. Morton F. Fosberg, War Department, Attitude Research Section, 7700 I & E Group, APO 139, c/o P.M., New York. YN(O)Y

Attitudes of the American Soldier Towards Certain Minority Groups. Morton F. Fosberg, War Department, Attitude Research Section, 7700 I & E Group, APO 139, c/o P.M., New

York, YY(O)N

What the American Soldier in the European Command Thinks of His Army Outfit. Morton F. Fosberg, War Department, Attitude Research Section, 7700 I & E Group, APO 139, c/o P.M., New York. YY(O)N

An Analysis of Student Opinion Concerning Attitudes Toward Communism, Russia, and the Proposal of President Truman for Aid to Greece and Turkey. Margaret K. Francisco, Washington State College, Pullman, Washington. YN (Aug. 47)N

XVII. SOCIAL CHANGE

The Public Housing Movement: A Case Study of Social Change. Harry C. Bredemeier, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey. NN (June 48)N

Social and Economic Changes in the Southern Appalachian Mountains. Paul F. Cressey, Wheaton College, Norton, Massachusetts. YN (Dec. 47)N

A Study of Change in Personality and Culture of the Communal Settlements in Palestine. Eva Rosenfeld Hofberg, Bard College, Annandale-on-Hudson, New York. NN(1949)N

The Acculturation of the Roumanian Group in Detroit. Rev. Peter Trutza, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. YN(Dec. 47)N

XVIII. MISCELLANEOUS

Schools of Social Work in Latin America. Robert C. Jones, Pan American Union, Washington 6, D.C. YN(1947)N

Trends in Preprofessional Education for Social Work. Mereb E. Mossman, Women's College of University of North Carolina, Greensboro, North Carolina. YY(Aug. 47)N

Social Aspects of Radio. Martin H. Neumeyer, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California. YY(O)N

A Study of the Recruitment, Selection, and Training of Social Scientists. Elbridge Sibley,

Social Science Research Council, 726 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington, D.C. NN(1947)N

A Study of American Culture. John Sirjamaki, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut. YO (O)O

Colombia: People and Institutions. T. Lynn Smith, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana. YY(O)N

A Casebook in General Sociology. Logan Wilson (with Wm. L. Kolb, co-author), Tulane University, New Orleans, Louisiana. YN(O)Y

C. SUGGESTIONS

I. The necessity of selecting *important* topics for research was never more urgent than now. President Wirth has asked the Research Committee to "canvass the membership of the Society as to the important areas and problems of research in sociology that they think should be cultivated both because of their importance for the world and for our discipline, and because they are ripe for research and are promising." The Research Committee intends to make this canvass in September. Therefore, you are urged to give the problem some thought in the meantime.

II. The following letter was written to the Chairman of the Research Committee by Dr. James W. Fesler, Chairman of the Committee on Government Records and Research of the Social Science Research Council. It seems im-

portant enough to justify making its contents available to members. It concerns government records for research in the social sciences and reads as follows:

"In April, 1946 the Social Science Research Council established the Committee on Government Records and Research and charged it with two basic tasks: (1) To advise government agencies concerned with records preservation, classification, and organization so as to facilitate the use of government records for social science research, and (2) to make better known among research workers in the social sciences the availability and usefulness of government records suitable for research purposes. Among shorter run objectives was that of encouraging the declassification of war records that otherwise, because of their wartime classification as secret, confidential, or restricted, would be unavailable to social scientists outside the government.

"The Committee has established an effective advisory relationship to the Archivist of the United States, and has actively impressed upon the State, War and Navy Departments the interest of social scientists in the declassification of war records. It has also arranged a procedure whereby requests for review of particular records for declassification purposes will be given prompt and sympathetic attention.

"The Committee is now eager to help social scientists become more acutely aware of the research potentialities of government records. The task of bringing these potentialities to the attention of social scientists seems one that can best be undertaken by the research committees and the journals of the individual professional societies in the social sciences. It occurred to us that your committee and the similar groups in other societies would be the most logical bodies to assure for the individual social sciences the most discriminating determination of important research topics for which government records may be useful, to identify the government agencies whose records are most relevant to the particular topics, and to appraise the quality and ease of use of particular bodies of records.

"Some professional associations have already initiated work along these lines. In addition, the National Archives, acting under a request of the President, has recently inaugurated work on a series of manuals and guides to the World War II records of the Federal Government. This project, however, will not be completed until 1949 or 1950. It seems desirable not only to welcome the initiative already shown, but to urge that each of the societies make an affirmative effort to inform their members of the rich store of information awaiting exploitation by scholars. That this is not a superfluous activity for research committees and journals is evidenced by the wide testimony that most social scientists have

neglected government records as research materials.

"I should therefore welcome your indicating to me:

- (1) The extent and nature of activities already under way to bring the usefulness of government records to the attention of members of your association.
- (2) Any bodies of significant records whose continuing classification as secret, confidential, or restricted, is materially impeding research in the social sciences and on whose declassification you wish to enlist the aid of the Committee on Government Records and Research.
- (3) Any suggestions as to ways in which the Committee on Government Records and Research might be of aid in facilitating the research use of government records.

"It is, of course, our desire to avoid duplication of the work of the individual societies' research committees and to strengthen their work wherever we can. I shall welcome your co-operation in this endeavor.

Sincerely yours,

(Signed) James W. Fesler, Chairman
Committee on Government Records and Research"

Members interested in exploring the possibilities of using such data might write to Dr. Fesler for further details; any suggestions you have for joint action by the Society might be sent to the Chairman of the Research Committee.

Committee on Social Research

NATHAN L. WHETTEN, Chairman
PHILIP HAUSER
RAYMOND F. SLETTLO
DOROTHY S. THOMAS
ROBERT F. WINCH

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CURRENT ITEMS

NOTES ON RESEARCH AND TEACHING

A NOTE ON THE IDEAL TYPE

WILLIAM J. GOODE

Wayne University

Current discussions of the ideal type in both technical and methodological terms by such theorists as Parsons, Znaniecki, Becker, MacIver, and Von Schelting have described a conceptual technique which has been widely used by analysts of all phenomena from time immemorial. These discussions have not been mere word play, since they have undoubtedly helped to distinguish various types of such constructs, and to indicate some of the valid bases on which their use may rest. Von Schelting has pointed out that Weber implicitly used two different categories of the ideal type, (A) the individualizing, and (B) the generalizing concept. He also noted that under the individualizing concept there were two major sub-categories, (A₁) the concrete historical individuals which are the objects of analysis (things and phenomena in time), and (A₂) ideas. Parsons on the other hand suggests that the generalizing concept may also be broken down into two types: (B₁) an abstractly general, ideal-typically exaggerated, hypothetical course of events; and (B₂) what Parsons has defined as analytical elements.¹

Becker, it may be noted, has used his term, the "constructed type" as an individualizing and as a generalizing concept in a similar fashion.²

The basic fact to begin with is that all concepts are constructs. "Raw" experience is not raw even at the moment of perception. We categorize and organize our experience at all

¹ See Talcott Parsons, *The Structure of Social Action*, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1947, pp. 603 ff. Note also his earlier discussion of the analytical element in the section, "Types of Concepts," pp. 27-41 ff.

² See, for example, Howard Becker, "Constructive Typology in the Social Sciences," in Harry E. Barnes, Howard Becker, and Frances B. Becker, *Contemporary Social Theory*, Appleton-Century, N.Y., 1940, pp. 17-46.

See also his extended article in *Twentieth Century Sociology*, Georges Gurvitch and Wilbert E. Moore (Eds.), Philosophical Library, N.Y., 1946, "Interpretive Sociology and Constructive Typology," pp. 70-95.

times. When we begin to analyze and classify data for any science, we remove ourselves from "reality" a further step. The methodological basis for this is fairly clear. Unique phenomena, and all are so in their concrete wholeness, do not recur. They are not "orderly." To introduce order and its various implications, we eliminate from reality the unique, the extraneous, the non-recurring, thus achieving "abstract generality." In terms of "causal" analysis, we have reduced the number of objects or relationships to be studied, and by the consequent closure of a relational system we have reduced the number of significant "causes" to be studied.

The ideal type as outlined by Von Schelting, and Parsons, following Weber, is defined negatively for the most part: It is (1) a construct, from (2) abstracted elements, and thus (3) forms a unified conceptual pattern. There is (4) a one-sided "exaggeration" of some aspects of concrete reality, but it is (5) not a hypothesis, and (6) not a concrete, or complete, description of reality. Similarly, (7) it is not a statistical mean, or (8) the elements "common" to a group.³

However, in emphasizing the "unreal" nature of the ideal type these discussions have failed to see how closely the Weberian ideal type corresponds to many other types which we use constantly in our discussions. One ideal type which often corresponds closely to the Weberian pattern is our concept of the polar type. Here there is abstract generality and an ideal typical exaggeration of concrete reality. Nevertheless the mode, the mean, the median, and even an imaginary "enumeration of all traits" are similarly all conceptual creations, are thus all deviations from reality, and thus all "exaggerate" at some point the concrete referent to which they presumably correspond.

The manifest functions of all such types are to identify and to simplify. Concomitant with this identification various analyses and descriptions are also given, as well as statements of relationship. Which type is technically more useful to us in a given analysis must be decided in accordance with the ends and conceptual schema of our investigation. There is, therefore,

³ Cf. Parsons, *op. cit.*, pp. 603-4.

no esoteric quality about either the concept or its manipulation.

The problem of *which* items to use in formulating the type is decided by the goals and framework of the investigation. Clearly the items used in the type must be relevant to the general field of investigation and they must be sufficient in quality or number for a minimum identification and therefore closure of the relational system to be isolated. There is, of course, no *mechanical* technique for this, just as there is no such technique for the choice of *what* to study or *which* hypothesis to investigate.

Furthermore, no ideal type of an individualizing nature can be of much utility if there is no correspondence between it and other categories of types, or concrete phenomena. In the case of the polar exaggerations, we have created asymptotic value combinations which represent the extreme possibility of theoretical variation, i.e., limiting cases. That is, the polar type is simply a related group, or complex, of elements or units, with asymptotic values at one pole, corresponding to a parallel group, of contrary values, at the other. Between two such poles, presumably, a concrete case would fall, as between the poles of *Gemeinschaft-Gesellschaft*. Correspondingly, the mode and median would presumably fall in the middle range between these two, as a usual matter. In this manipulation, however, what we actually are doing is identifying an object to be investigated, whether that object be a process, an event, or a concrete thing, retaining the relationally relevant items.

In Becker's article on the constructive typology, he indicates to us how he is "creating" the concept of "marginal trading people." Here, however, we have merely a case of a secondary hypothesis not made explicit: that is, what are the causally or relationally relevant factors to be retained in the process of identification? In short, we have started with an ideal type which is unrefined merely because we have not yet isolated the main elements in our conceptually closed system.

The possible rejoinders to the use of any specific type indicate clearly the functions of this type, whichever category is used. One such rejoinder is that the type used is too far removed from concrete reality in elements or aspects crucial to an adequate proof of the hypothesis investigated. That is, the type is lacking in particular characteristics, or the ones used are not given the proper values. Thus, we may refuse to accept someone's conception of

the "capitalist system," because he has left out of his ideal-typical creation the characteristic of rationality.

A second rejoinder may be that the type created is a mere intellectual creation without any relevance to reality at all. In short, there is no concrete referent. The third rejoinder especially applicable in the case of a statistically described type must be that there have been possible technical errors in the statistical manipulations, so that the mathematical statement of the values involved in the ideal type is not correct.

This accepts the idea that the type is not a *hypothesis*. It is rather the conceptual reference to the *object* of investigation. The logical "sharpening" of the ideal type which has been emphasized does not change this situation. The technique is again merely to reduce the relational system to such a simplicity in number and quality that it can be handled by the available analytic procedures.

The second type suggested (B) is that of the *generalizing* concept. With the first category (B₁), however, we are dealing with quite another matter and it seems more fruitful to drop the term "ideal type" in this connection. Since it reduces methodologically to a simple outline of the ideal experiment, there is no point in using this term to refer to it. The retrospective experiment alternatively suggested by Becker is, of course, methodologically acceptable. There is the usual danger that one simply formulates in a simple fashion what has taken place, and we are naturally freer from that danger when we make a prediction about the future. It has been amply demonstrated that we can make an arithmetic statement (with some specious validity)⁴ about any past series of events. Whatever the dangers, however, the method itself is valid, and Becker is quite right in stating that we have ignored many bodies of historical data which would be sociologically fruitful.

Parsons' suggestion that the *analytical elements* be considered as ideal type (B₂) seems questionable. Actually, they seem to be rather the variables, specific combinations of values of which are used to *describe* or create an ideal type. They are not exaggerations or averages, or asymptotic complexes, but are the "charac-

⁴ See the amusing instances created by Charles Sanders Peirce, *The Collected Papers of C. S. Peirce*, C. Hartshorne and P. Weis, eds., 1931, vol. I, p. 40.

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teristics" of such complexes. In this sense they are not, as Parsons maintains, limiting *cases*, but are the variables, the extreme *values* of which are used to create the limiting cases. The term loses its meaning if extended to all concepts.

DO SOCIAL SCIENTISTS KNOW LIBRARIES?

WILLIAM P. TUCKER

State Library, Olympia, Wash.

Do social scientists know the importance of libraries? The answer would be dubious if their textbooks were taken as evidence. Eight years ago the writer analyzed one hundred general college and high school texts in the field of sociology and found scant awareness of the significance of library service. In contrast, substantial space was devoted to the sociological topics hallowed by tradition—education, recreation, crime, poverty, religion, etc.

Twenty-one books at least mentioned libraries. Seven of these also gave some space to the topics "books," "magazines," "literature," or "reading." Five other books gave some treatment to one or more of the last four topics but not to "library service."

Eliminating one book devoting twenty-four pages to libraries, we find the other twenty volumes devoting a total of 9½ pages to the subject, with 15 of them devoting a half page or less. When the books in question were grouped by decade according to date of publication, there seemed to be little if any noticeable trend toward an increased awareness of library service on the part of sociologists. The authors of the orthodox type of college text seemed to be less aware of the topic in question than the writers of books for high school and general reader consumption.

The only work analyzed which gave an adequate treatment of the public library was Ballard's *Social Institutions* (24 pages). All the other titles treating the subject gave less than three pages. Six barely mentioned the topic, while fourteen attempted to furnish some information on the subject.

The treatment of topics in these books is of interest. Seven of the works discuss the educational function of the library. Four consider what might be called the civic value of the public library. Three consider public relations. Two each consider the following: Carnegie support through provision of buildings, general public library support, and the history of li-

brary service. Each of the following six problems is touched upon by some one of the authors: rural library service and unserved areas, library relations with schools, the professional spirit of librarians, the problem of "best-sellers," improvement of reading habits and tastes, and library services and processes.

Only two authors give any real treatment of the significance of periodical literature; while two give accounts of the significance of reading.

In 1946, the writer made a similar analysis of twenty general sociology textbooks of college grade published since 1938. The treatment of library service, books, and reading in these recent publications represents only a slight improvement over the books covered in the earlier study.

Seven of the twenty volumes contain material on library service ranging in length from 3½ pages to ½ page. Four of the seven devoted ¼ page or less to the topic. Three of the seven mentioned the recreational value of the library; three, rural library service and unserved areas; three, improvement of reading habits and tastes; three, library services and processes; two, the educational value of the library, and one each, the size of great libraries, Carnegie support through provision of buildings, and the library's relations with schools.

The four best-known general social science survey textbooks published since 1939 likewise make a poor showing in their treatment of books, reading, and libraries. None mentioned reading as such; one devoted one-fifth page to statistics of book production. Two of the four gave one and one-half pages (½ and 1¼) to libraries. The briefer mention cited only the size of great libraries. The second mentioned library service as recreation, unserved areas, lack of library use by youth, and general trends in library reading. It will be remembered that such general social science survey courses are increasingly finding a prominent place in the college curriculum.

Two specialized phases of sociology were also checked—urban and rural sociology. Five well-known college texts in urban sociology showed no treatment of books or of reading. Three of the five devoted a total of three and two-thirds pages to libraries, with three pages of this total in one volume. These three titles were published since 1938; the two giving no mention to libraries were published in the preceding decade. The title giving three pages to the subject provided (within space limitations) a

well-rounded picture of public library services, costs, importance, needs, etc.

Books in the field of rural sociology were the only ones with a creditable treatment of books, reading, and libraries. Twelve books were studied.

Three of the titles devoted 9½ pages to books, with 6½ pages in one book. Five of the twelve devoted 8 pages to reading as such, with two giving two or more pages to the subjects. The emphasis was on the reading materials found in farm homes.

Ten of the twelve rural sociology volumes included material on libraries, with a total of twenty-five pages devoted to such data. Space so provided ranged from ¼ to 5½ pages. Four of the ten titles gave less than 2½ pages; three gave 3½ pages or more. In this latter group, the first discussed county library work, library demonstrations, state aid, and the librarian as a person. The second discussed the county library, the sizes and uses of libraries, and tax support. The third treated types of county library service and costs.

The dates of publication for these twelve titles ranged from 1924 to 1940. Six were published after 1931. Here, as with the general sociology texts, there is no pronounced trend toward greater awareness of books, reading, and libraries, since the titles published since 1931 devote only slightly more space to these topics than do the volumes published before that date.

A similar check was made on representative college textbooks in political science. The following fields were studied, with the number of titles indicated: American government 10; state government 6; city government 6.

All ten of the American government texts were published since 1940. Of these, five made no mention of libraries and one gave bare mention to the subject. Each of the other four titles devoted approximately ¾ of a page each. One mentioned the inadequate financial support received by the average public library, the work of the copyright office, and the work of the Library of Congress in general. The second discussed "books and the courts," legislative reference libraries, the educational importance of libraries, inadequate support, and the work of the Library of Congress. The third mentioned the Library of Congress, the public library as an educational agency, and various library services. The fourth mentioned types of libraries and kinds of services rendered, Carnegie build-

ings, legislative reference libraries, and the large libraries of New York and Boston.

Three of the five authors who gave at least mention of libraries were younger than the other seven. All five had a somewhat more varied background of professional experience, and their other published works were of a somewhat more varied nature.

The texts on state government have no better record on the treatment of library service than the works on American government. Three of the six studied mentioned the topic. One gave ½ page to the state library agency and state aid to local libraries. The second gave 1¼ pages to legislative reference bureaus. And the third gave 2½ pages to legislative reference bureaus and libraries. There was hardly mention of state financial and other aids to municipal and county library service, which have grown substantially in recent years.

The only substantial treatment of libraries in political science books was found in the works on municipal government and administration. All six of the well-known texts studied treated the subject, with the space ranging from 1 to 19½ pages. Five devoted two or more pages; three, four or more pages. The treatment, in most cases, ranged from adequate to excellent, within the space limitations.

The conclusion seems inescapable that the majority of sociologists and political scientists are insufficiently aware of the social significance of library service; are insufficiently aware of the role of the library as an important educational agency. This inadequate treatment of library service is in contrast with the much greater amount of space usually devoted to recreation and other public services whose budgetary support is somewhat comparable to that for library service.

Librarians can probably do something to change this condition through showing sociologists, political scientists, and other professional people of their acquaintance what services libraries can render. They can also do much to heighten such an awareness by a generally increased attention to public relations work—keeping the entire community in touch with their services.

NEWS AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

National Central University, Nanking, China.
The Department of Sociology has been enlarged, ever since the University moved back from Chungking, by adding seven new faculty members to the

staff. The present department staff consists of thirteen persons: Dr. Pen-Wen Sun, professor and chairman of the Department, Drs. Shangling Fu, John Chu, Peh-si Wu, and Mr. C. T. Mou, professors of sociology, Messrs. T. H. Chen, and Chih Ko, associate professors of sociology; Drs. T. F. Hsia, concurrently Director of the Bureau of Social Affairs, Nanking Municipality, H. K. Chang, concurrently Director of the Department of Social Welfare, Ministry of Social Affairs, S. F. Ko, and Frank Yen, part-time professors of sociology; Dr. Albert R. O'Hara, formerly of San Francisco University, and Mrs. H. K. Chang (Y.T.Wu), part-time associate professors. Dr. Sun has written a set of eleven volumes published by the Commercial Press Ltd., Shanghai, since 1939. They are: (1) *Chinese Social Problems*, 1939; (2) *Social Problems of Modern China*, 4 volumes, 1940-1943; (3) *Social Thought*, 1944; (4) *Social Psychology*, 2 volumes, 1947; (5) *Historical Development of Modern Sociology*, 1947; (6) *Principles of Sociology*, Revised edition, 2 vols. 1944. Besides, there are two other books in press: (1) *Methods and Schedules of Social Surveys* (2) *Recent Tendencies in Social Sciences*, *The Sociological Quarterly*, an official journal of the Chinese Sociological Society, under the editorship of Dr. Sun since 1929, suspended by the war, has now planned for its re-publication. Recently, the staff of the department has attempted, in co-operation with the departments of sociology of the University of Nanking and Ginling College, to make a social survey of the city of Nanking. They have held six informal meetings for the preparation of such a survey. It is hoped that the survey will be completed within a year or so.

U. S. Zone, Germany. An Army Assistance to German Youth Activities Program has been set up with the objectives of reducing juvenile delinquency in the U. S. Zone and of demonstrating and teaching democratic concepts to German youth. During April, 1947, 768,032 youth participated in this program. A great need is felt for literature on youth activities. Any who can send such literature are urged to do so. Address: Office of German Youth Activities, Headquarters, United States Constabulary, APO 46, U. S. Army.

The University of Ceylon is establishing a Chair of Sociology and wishes to invite American sociologists to apply for the position. The salary approximates \$5,000 a year plus a rental allowance of 15% and an overseas allowance of 33%. Passage to Colombo is provided free for the professor and his family. Appointment is for four years in the first instance. Those interested should write to Professor W. Ivor Jennings, Vice Chancellor, University of Ceylon, Colombo, Ceylon.

Carnegie Corporation of New York has granted \$250,000 for an experimental five-year program to develop four permanent university study centers on

Latin America. The project will be carried out jointly by the University of North Carolina, the University of Texas, the Tulane University of Louisiana, and Vanderbilt University, with each institution concentrating on a definite geographical area. North Carolina will focus on area studies of Spanish South America, Texas will emphasize Mexico, Tulane will carry on a Middle American program and Vanderbilt plans to establish an institute of South American studies, emphasizing Brazil. Designed to make available comprehensive knowledge of Latin America to students, teachers, business men and government officials, the program will provide in each center a strengthened undergraduate curriculum, broader facilities for graduate work and an expansion of library resources.

Correction Service Associates. The application of group therapy and group work to correctional programs was the theme of the first annual meeting, held at Washington, D.C., on May 24, 1947. The recently formed organization is an affiliate of the American Prison Association.

The purpose of Correctional Service Associates is to raise standards of practice in the field of delinquency and crime prevention and control by encouraging and co-ordinating professional scientific studies, experimentation, and group discussion by younger career workers. Membership is comprised of persons under 40 years old who are professionally engaged in the correctional field. Student memberships are available to mature college students who are preparing for career service in correctional work.

Officers elected for 1947-48 were Mark S. Richmond, administrative officer at the Federal Bureau of Prisons, president; John W. Tramburg, vice-president; Roberts J. Wright, assistant secretary of the Prison Association of New York, secretary; and Randolph E. Wise, chief probation officer of the United States District Court at Philadelphia, treasurer.

Requests for information about Correctional Service Associates and applications for membership may be addressed to H. G. Moeller, chief of the Juvenile Section of the Federal Bureau of Prisons, Washington 25, D.C.

Industrial and Labor Relations Review, a new periodical, will be published quarterly by the New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations of Cornell University.

Russell Sage Foundation announces the appointment of Ralph G. Hurlin as Acting General Director, effective July 1 upon the retirement of Shelby M. Harrison, the present General Director. He will be administrative head of the Foundation until Dr. Donald Young, whose appointment as General Director was recently announced, is able to assume his office, which probably will not be until some time in 1948.

Social Science Research Council. The committee on social adjustment in old age is preparing an information bulletin containing brief descriptions of research projects on aging, under way or contemplated. All persons conducting research in this area which has not already been reported to the committee are urged to send a description of their projects to the committee, indicating problems, subjects, techniques of investigation, stage of the work, etc. Please mail communications to Glen Heathers, Social Science Research Council, 230 Park Avenue, New York 17, N.Y.

The Midwest Sociological Society held its second post-war conference April 25, 26, and 27 at Hotel Kirkwood, Des Moines, Iowa. Sections on Content of Introductory Courses and on Techniques of Teaching occupied one morning session. Sections on Research on the Midwest and on Research constituted an afternoon session. A luncheon occasion featured a paper by Dr. John M. Gillette, "Regionalism: A Name or a Demonstrable Reality." The annual dinner was followed by a symposium presided over by the First Vice-President, Professor T. Earl Sullenger. Current trends in four areas of sociological study were thus summarized: City Life, the Family, International Sociology and Rural Life. A final session dealt with Sociology and General Education. Dr. J. W. Albig, University of Illinois, organized the program. The Midwest Student Sociological Association sponsored by the Society was revived this year with a special session at which four undergraduates presented papers. Professor Marguerite Reuss, Marquette University, sponsored the student group.

At the annual business meeting Dr. Arthur James Todd was unanimously elected to Honorary Life Membership. Officers for the year 1947-48 were elected as follows: President, Lloyd V. Ballard of Beloit College; First Vice-President, Harold Saunders, State University of Iowa; representatives on the Executive Committee, from Illinois, J. E. Hulett, Jr.; from Iowa, Mason Olcutt; from Kansas, Randall C. Hill; from Minnesota, Clifford Kirkpatrick; from Missouri, R. C. Miner. The Executive Committee re-appointed Joseph B. Gittler, Iowa State College, as Editor of *The Midwest Sociologist* and named Donald O. Cowgill, University of Wichita as Secretary-Treasurer.

The annual reports of the Secretary-Treasurer, J. Howell Atwood, Knox College, showed at the close of the fiscal year, April 16, a membership of 129.

Pacific Sociological Society was held in Agate Beach, Oregon, May 15 through 17, with seventy members in attendance. The Presidential Address was given by Professor Calvin F. Schmid, University of Washington. The officers for the coming year will be: President, Richard T. La Pierre, Stanford University; Vice-Presidents, Northern Division—

Robert O'Brien, University of Washington, Southern Division—Harvey J. Locke, University of Southern California, Central Division—Ruth Gillard, Mills College; Secretary-Treasurer, Leonard Bloom, University of California at Los Angeles; *Editor of the Proceedings*, Carl E. Dent, State College of Washington; *Representative to Executive Committee of American Sociological Society*, Calvin F. Schmid, University of Washington.

New members of the Advisory Council are Emory S. Bogardus, University of Southern California and Elon H. Moore, University of Oregon.

At this meeting the following resolution was passed: "Moved that the Pacific Sociological Society request the Executive Committee of the American Sociological Society to take necessary action to have the sociological part of the Graduate Record Examination be made more representative of modern sociology."

Harvard University. The Department of Social Relations announces the appointment of Dr. A. L. Kroeger as Visiting Professor of Anthropology and Dr. Erich Lindemann as Lecturer in Clinical Psychology. M. Brewster Smith and Richard L. Solomon have been appointed Assistant Professors of Social Psychology and David F. Aberle has been named Instructor in Social Anthropology.

Knox College. Recently published by Association Press is the report of a special committee on Negro Constituency in Y.M.C.A.'s headed by Shelby Harrison of the Russell Sage Foundation. It is entitled *The Racial Factor in Y.M.C.A.'s* and is based on 260 original interviews with key persons in twenty-four selected cities in the east, southeast and midwest. The data were gathered by Dr. J. Howell Atwood, Professor of Sociology, Knox College.

New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts. Sigurd Johansen has been promoted to Professor of Sociology and has been appointed Head of the Department of History and Social Science.

Oberlin College. Dr. Loren C. Eiseley, professor and head of the Department of Sociology and Anthropology, Oberlin College, has resigned his position, effective July 1, in order to become professor and chairman of the Department of Anthropology at the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia. Dr. George Simpson, head of the Department of Sociology at Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pennsylvania, has been appointed to replace Dr. Eiseley as head of the department at Oberlin. Other new appointments at Oberlin include two associate professors of sociology: Dr. Richard R. Myers and Dr. Milton Yinger.

Pennsylvania College for Women. Dr. Mabel A. Elliott has accepted appointment as Professor

of Sociology and Head of the Sociology Department. During 1946-47 Dr. Elliott has served as Consulting Sociologist to the American Red Cross. In this capacity she did research on the Disaster Relief Services of the organization.

San Francisco College for Women. Allen Spitzer has been appointed assistant professor in the Department of Social Sciences. He will introduce courses in Far Eastern Culture and in Cultural Anthropology.

University of Michigan. Dr. Clyde B. Vedder has been appointed Instructor of Sociology. He took his Ph.D. in June, 1947, at the University of Southern California with a thesis on the taxi dance hall in Los Angeles and Detroit.

University of Missouri. Professor Arthur Nebel, director of the curriculum in social work has resigned to enter business. Mr. Mark Hale, professor of social work at Tulane University, will replace Mr. Nebel.

Marvin Riley and Elizabeth Lyman will join the staff of the department of Sociology in September, 1947. Mr. Riley spent the past year at the University of Wisconsin. Miss Lyman, who has been doing graduate work at the University of Chicago, taught at Roosevelt College in Chicago during the past year.

New courses added in the department of Sociology are: American Archaeology, Field Methods in Archaeology, Ethnology, History and Method in Anthropology, Social Classes, Community Planning and Housing.

Margaret L. Bright, instructor in Rural Sociology, will be on leave during the academic year 1947-48 studying at the University of Wisconsin.

Wayne University. The following additions to the staff have been announced by Dr. Alfred McClung Lee, Chairman: Joseph W. Eaton of Columbia University, instructor, to begin in June, 1947; Dr. Carl F. Butts of Western Reserve University, assistant professor, and Harold L. Sheppard of the University of Wisconsin, instructor, to begin in September, 1947.

Under the terms of a grant from the Marshall Field Foundation, Dr. Lee has been granted a leave of absence for the academic year 1947-48 to complete a sociological research project upon which he has been working. Dr. Stephen W. Mamchur, assistant professor, is to serve as acting chairman during the summer of 1947.

Yale University. The Sociology Club of the Yale Graduate School has had an unusually interesting program during the current college year. The following speakers have addressed the Club:

Samuel Stouffer of Harvard University; Georges Gurvitch, Directeur, Centre d'Etudes Sociologiques, Paris; Robert Boies and Philip Valdez, graduate students in International Relations, Yale University; Ralph Linton, Yale University; Dimitrie Gusti of the University of Bucharest, Rumania; Paul Weiss, Professor of Philosophy, Yale University; Frank Loescher, Head of Placement Service, American Friends Service Committee; Howard W. Odum of the University of North Carolina; Sigmund Neumann, Professor of Government, Harvard University.

BOOK REVIEWS



A Study of History. By ARNOLD J. TOYNBEE. New York: Oxford University Press, 1947. xiii, 617 pp. \$5.

When I first heard of the publication of Toynbee's *Study of History*, I was filled with eager anticipations and expectations. Having great sympathy with all efforts to portray the development of humanity "in the large"—with all attempts to delineate the forests and avoid getting sidetracked and lost amidst the trees—this seemed to me a book of great promise. I felt as though here must be a historical telescope which would, as it were, place one on the Great Divide of human experience, past, present, and future, and enable him to study the distant panoramas at great range and with consummate clarity. When I actually took down the volumes, I had the sensation of running into a series of duststorms on a vast desert.

Yet, no publication in the field of history since the appearance of H. G. Wells' *Outline of History*, and Oswald Spengler's *Decline of the West*, has attracted so vast a following or received such extended and diversified adulation. And neither Wells nor Spengler developed a cult, which Toynbee is on the high road to collecting.

The question may cogently be raised as to why Toynbee would be so widely and ecstatically acclaimed at any time, and especially in 1947. His first three volumes appeared 14 years ago, and they contained most of his basic ideas. The second three came out in 1939—eight years ago. Some might say it is because a one-volume digest has just been made available, but this is not the answer. The clamor of the growing Toynbee cult was what suggested the condensation. There would seem to be at least five groups to whom the work makes a special and timely appeal—and that particularly in the chaotic post-war epoch.

To understand the source of interest on the part of the largest element in the host of Toynbee's devoted followers, one would have to turn back for a precedent to the intellectual fears, consternation and "loss of nerve" on the part of the literate population in the days of the breakup of the Roman Empire in the West which has been so well described by Gilbert Murray.

In those days of social disintegration, groping and yearning, Orosius's *Seven Books of History against the Pagans* and, above all, Augustine's *City of God* provided the alarmed and disconsolate with a cosmic philosophy and a faith to which they might cling. Toynbee has done for our period of institutional decay what Augustine and Orosius did for that earlier era of chaos and transition. In spirit and attitude, Toynbee's work closely resembles Sorokin's *Social and Cultural Dynamics* in the sociological field. Toynbee and Sorokin are the twin Augustines of our era, and the one-volume version of Toynbee may be roughly compared to Sorokin's *The Crisis of Our Age*.

Like Henry Osborn Taylor, Toynbee resolutely believes in the dominant rôle of God in History. God is the most active force in history, and the Kingdom of God is the goal of the historical development of mankind. The Incarnation of Jesus is the central fact of history. Even in his main formula of historical evolution—"Challenge and Response"—Toynbee introduces a mystical element: each nascent civilization is destined to fulfill the rôle that God intended for it. Though Toynbee decisively rejects the idea of materialistic determinism in history, his whole work is a case for the spiritual determination of human development. The rôle of the Savior is a powerful factor in history; of all the historic saviors, Christ was unique. In our day, Toynbee appears to his cult in the rôle of "the Creative Genius as the Savior." As George Catlin has written, Toynbee presses "to an issue the question of the significance of Christianity, redemption and original sin in its application to the 'world' of force." To Toynbee, the historical process is purely a spiritual matter. Faith in the divine order of the universe and man's destiny is what produces that spiritual creativity which Toynbee regards as the dynamic factor in human development. He is far closer to Plotinus than to Marx in his genetic ideology. Neither reason nor material factors play any determining rôle in history. As Hajo Holborn puts it, Toynbee construes "the birth, life and death of civilizations as a struggle in the human soul."

Another group of Toynbee followers is made

up of those who are, at long last, flabbergasted by the sorry state of the world which has resulted from actually applying the policies which they have urged upon us for a decade or more. They have now come to the "mourners' bench," and seek to expiate their sins and get assurance of better times to come. Clifton Fadiman is the leader of this contingent.

Then, there are a host of literary figures and journalists who have been fascinated and "bowled over" by Toynbee's work, mainly because they know little history, historiography or sociology. They have been "tipped off" by their friends or employers that this is a great or unique work, and the elaboration of this thesis makes "good copy." Alone of this type of adulator, Granville Hicks has shown a saving spirit of qualification and scepticism in what is probably the best exposition of Toynbee's ideas for the general reader (*Harpers*, February, 1947).

Fourth, there are those whose emotional yearning is always ministered to by an unintelligible jargon, a strange terminology and a mystical air which seem to them wise to the degree that they are inscrutable. This was the main source of the power of Mrs. Eddy's *Science and Health*. James T. Shotwell once said that the essence of the religious and mystical thrill lies in a thing apprehended but not comprehended. Toynbee's work partakes of this nature to many of his followers. As Charles Austin Beard observes: "His erudition and his metaphysics, combined with his metaphorical language and use of analogies, give a peculiar and elusive character to the whole." Or, as Howard Becker puts it: "By the end of the third volume the mystical motif becomes so loud that it almost crowds out the systematic-empirical theme."

Fifth, a large number of readers of Toynbee are in post-war days intrigued by his enthusiastic internationalism and "one-world" political philosophy, to which he brings an almost religious devotion, despite his assertion that the establishment of even incomplete "universal states" has in the past been the almost invariable symptom and signal of impending social disintegration.

In addition to those who follow Toynbee devoutly and sincerely, even if mistakenly in some cases, there is also a deliberate effort being fostered to build up Toynbee as the greatest historical writer of our generation. He has been commissioned and lavishly subsidized to supervise and help to write the "official" Anglo-

American history of World War II. To the extent that he can be made to seem omniscient and unerring, it will be difficult for wicked "Revisionists" to attack his findings.

Of course, all of the members of the Toynbee cult are immensely impressed with the size of the work—six volumes already, and three more to come. No fair reviewer would deny Mr. Toynbee's great learning or prodigious industry, but the size of the treatise has a special explanation. The complete edition is not a polished and well-organized literary masterpiece but in part a collection of studies and notes. Had a man like James Westfall Thompson, our great medievalist, done the same thing with all his lecture and seminar notes, the result would not have been six or nine volumes, but nineteen or more.

We have devoted much space to indicating the reasons for the popularity and adulation of Toynbee's book, for this is more important by far, than the book itself. The cult, rather than the book, is a leading intellectual and emotional phenomenon of our time. But a brief summary of the content and method of the book is essential.

Professor Toynbee published the first three volumes of *A Study of History* in 1933. This initial installment was devoted primarily to a statement of the problem and the general principles to be followed, and to the genesis of some twenty-one selected civilizations. Three more volumes appeared in 1939. These were mainly taken up with a description of the decline and disintegration of these civilizations. Three more volumes are promised. Those to come are supposed to handle the problem of the contacts and rhythms in the development of historic civilizations, the outcome of Western civilization, the sources of inspiration for historians, and the lesson of all this for our age. The volume under review is an able abridgment of the first six volumes by D. C. Somervell. The abridgment is an actual improvement on the original, since nothing vital is lost and much of the bizarre terminology and tiresome or dubious detail is omitted.

As a professional historian and publicist, Professor Toynbee is primarily a specialist on the modern history of the Near East, particularly contemporary Greece. This is a source both of strength and weakness for his larger study. Knowing all Hellenic civilization thoroughly, from the Mycenaean age to the ELAS, Toynbee's familiarity with the rise and vicissitudes

of Hellenic civilization is especially complete. But he uses Hellenic civilization as the *type* or pattern for the formulation of his general theory of the rise, growth and decline of all civilizations, thus frequently having to squeeze his facts into a framework which they do not always fit. There were, obviously, many departures, even in kind, from basic Hellenic experience in the 20 other civilizations which Toynbee studies.

Toynbee's preconceptions even prevent him from always giving a fair picture of the historical data which he knows best. His assumption of the transcendent importance of faith and spiritual creativity leads him to minimize the remarkable achievements of Greek rationalism in the Age of Pericles and the vital contributions of Rome in creating a great system of law and bringing peace and unity to the western world. Toynbee includes the Roman Empire as a phase of Hellenic civilization—its decadent phase as a universal state—and many of his theories of the decline of civilization are obviously based on the course of Roman decadence. Here he displays a very incomplete knowledge of the more vital factors involved. Or, if he knows what they were, he passes them over because they do not fit into his spiritual interpretation of history.

One sound, basic procedure of Toynbee is the fact that he takes as his unit for historical theory, societies, not states; civilizations, not nations. It may be fairly pointed out that Toynbee did not dodge the problem of nations through lack of competence, since he is the author of an able book on the relation of nationality to the first World War. He rejected the national pattern because he believes that no culture is purely national; hence, a study of civilization cannot be based on a national frame of reference or circumscribed by national boundaries. This eschewing of nations as the unit of historical study by Toynbee is not, however, as important or significant as it might seem. There were no nations, strictly speaking, until modern times, and Toynbee devotes little space either in his large work or in the condensation to modern history. Even the old-fashioned historians were wont to study *civilizations* in the period before the breakup of feudalism in western Europe—Egyptian civilization, Mesopotamian civilization, Hellenic and Roman civilization, and medieval civilization. So, there is nothing specially unique about all this.

Taking as his unit of investigation the origin and destiny of specific civilizations, Toynbee

finds that there have been some 21 altogether in the course of history, along with certain peripheral cultures which never attained a true civilization. He first lists 19 such civilizations: The Egyptiac, Sumeric, Babylonian, Hittite, Syriac, Minoan, Hellenic, Iranic, Arabic, Hindu, Indic, Sinic, Far Eastern, Andean, Yucatec, Mayan, Mexic, Orthodox Christian, and Western. He gets his 21 by dividing the Orthodox Christian into Orthodox Byzantine and Orthodox Russian; and Far Eastern into Chinese and Korean-Japanese.

During the course of recorded history, the "civilizational" process has disposed of all but seven of these world civilizations: the Orthodox Christian, the Orthodox Russian, the Islamic (which combines the Iranic and Arabic civilizations of the original list), the Hindu, the Chinese, the Korean-Japanese, and the Western (Western Europe, the British Commonwealth, the United States, and Latin America).

All except Western civilization are in their terminal stages and have already fallen into the orbit of Western civilization. Their period of basic breakdown runs from 977 for Orthodox Christianity, to 1500 for Islamic civilization. Even the outcome for Western civilization is highly uncertain and it may turn out that its period of breakdown is to be located in the Conciliar Movement of the 15th century or the Religious Wars of the 16th. The main assurance of salvation for Western civilization resides in two facts: (1) we have not yet reached the period of the "universal state" which always portends inevitable dissolution; and (2) we may have the good sense and inspiration to recognize the destiny for which God has intended us and rise to claim our divine heritage before it is too late. The chief hope for this second possibility lies in a great revival of Christian faith and zeal. In the case of every civilization, the period of actual breakdown comes prior to the era which is usually regarded as the height of that civilization; therefore, the Golden Ages are invariably periods of "Indian Summer."

We may now summarize Toynbee's conception of what the late Albion W. Small would call the "process" of civilization—its rise, maturity, and decline. He rejects racial factors as any valid force in the growth and character of civilization. While the physical environment plays its rôle in the evolution of civilizations, it is not sufficient, in itself, to explain the rise of cultures. The great historical formula to account, not only for the rise of civilizations but also for

their decline, Toynbee finds in what he calls "Challenge and Response," which, as Howard Becker has pointed out, is very similar to the socio-psychic mechanism of "Crisis," as used by W. I. Thomas. There is little likelihood, however, that Toynbee was at all influenced by Thomas, for there is no indication that he is familiar with American sociological literature. It has been suggested that he may have derived his basic formula of challenge and response from the once highly popular book of Winwood Reade on *The Martyrdom of Man*, first published in 1872 and reprinted in numerous editions.

At the outset, as primitive man starts on the road to civilization, this vital challenge is chiefly presented by the physical environment, and the human response is society's effort to meet the challenge and conquer it. The ideal initial challenge is one which will call forth the greatest possible efforts of mankind, but is not overwhelming enough to exhaust all human energy in meeting it. If the challenge is too severe, the response will deplete human energy and initiative sufficiently to produce an arrested civilization like that of the Eskimo. If the challenge is too slight, as in many tropical lands, mankind will linger on the borders of civilization and never create a high culture.

The first great pattern or complex of challenges and responses was related to the conquest of the physical and social environment in the period of the rise of civilizations. After civilization has been attained, the second main pattern of challenges and responses arises. This new complex is most directly related to the problems involved in conducting the civilization which has been produced—in other words, to social problems and public life. The gravest of these problems which a civilization has to face are the perpetuation of adequate spiritual creativity in its leaders and the prevention of wars between what Toynbee calls "the parochial states" which make up the civilization.

If the institutions and social policies which have been created by the struggle to master the environment and attain civilization are not in accord with those essential to meet the challenge of social relationships and public responsibilities in a mature culture, the second pattern of responses is likely to fail, and the breakdown of civilization ensues. This is often followed, however, by what is commonly regarded as the period of maximum splendor of that civilization, but it is a splendor which contains the

fatal seeds and symptoms of decay. Civilizations always break down because of internal weaknesses rather than because of external attacks. The disintegration of cultures may be temporarily held in check by the regeneration of leaders through what Toynbee calls "Withdrawal-and-Return," which is his second great formula in explaining historical development and will be described shortly.

We may now consider the main stages and traits in the life-history of a typical civilization: In the earlier and growing period of civilization—when mankind is responding to the first great pattern of challenges from the physical and social environment—the historic process is guided by what he calls a "Creative Minority," among whom great religious leaders are the most important and influential element. The masses follow this creative minority willingly and unquestioningly because of spontaneous admiration and trust. Toynbee espouses the "Great Man" theory of history with gusto and consistency.

When a civilization has become well established a trend invariably seems to set in which constitutes the universal and invariable cause of the decline of all civilizations: the creative minority which had led mankind from primitivism to civilization loses its spiritual potential and creative vigor—at least loses enough of its guiding and inspiring *élan* so that it can no longer keep society moving steadily ahead to higher levels. As a result of this loss of spiritual impetus, the creative minority becomes transformed into what he designates as the "Dominant Minority." This dominant minority tends to maintain itself by the use of force of one kind or another, since it lacks the spiritual vigor, inspiration, and inventiveness to continue to keep the masses in a state of awe and admiration as the creative minority had earlier done. Toynbee has no objection to minority rule, but he holds that valid minority rule must rest upon charm and the capacity to ingratiate, which are the outward and visible signs of creativity. Whatever the many and sundry other causes of the hitherto inevitable decay of all civilizations, the fundamental fact is the loss of spiritual creativity in the minority.

When the creative minority is supplanted by the dominant minority, as a result of the loss of spiritual creativity on the part of the leaders, what Toynbee calls the "Time of Troubles" arrives in the civilization. These "troubles" take the form of class conflicts or "parochial wars"

within the society and of wars between the civilization and one or more of its neighboring civilizations. The most serious of these troubles is what Toynbee describes as wars between the "parochial states" within the civilization. The wars of the Greek city-states are the best example of what he means here.

Despite the "troubles," there still is a chance to save the civilization through what Toynbee denominates the withdrawal-and-return and the resulting "Etherealization" of leaders. There still remain creative geniuses and they withdraw from the masses to gain spiritual regeneration through communion with God, the contemplation of the Absolute, and the searching of their own souls. The resulting spiritual regeneration and moral convictions are the product of what Toynbee calls etherialization. These regenerated leaders then return to inspire the masses, as the creative minority had done in the growing period of civilization. Examples of such withdrawal-and-return are Moses's ascent of Mount Sinai, Caesar's Gallic Wars, Christ's fast in the Wilderness, St. Paul's withdrawal into the desert of Arabia, Guatama's seven-year renunciation of the world, and Mohammed's withdrawal of fifteen years as a caravan trader.

Yet, this regenerated leadership has never been able to save a civilization from ultimate decline and extinction—unless we of the Western World accept Christ's message before it is too late. All other civilizations are already extinct or doomed. As we have pointed out, one of the greatest challenges in the second series is that of wars between parochial states within the civilization. The response of the dominant minority to this challenge is the creation of what Toynbee calls a "Universal State," though it is never literally universal—what he means is a great political empire, such as that which Rome built up to check the wars between the parochial states of Hellenic civilization.

The attempt of the dominant minority to rule by force rather than by awe-inspiring creativity leads to a cleavage between the masses and their minority of leaders. The masses fall into two groups: the "Internal Proletariat" or the body of citizens within the society, and the "External Proletariat" or the "barbarians at the gate." Toynbee appears to have derived this conception of the internal and external proletariat from the great Russian social historian, Michael I. Rostovtzev. To combat the forceful ascendancy of the dominant minority, the internal proletariat embraces a universal religion

and creates a "Universal Church" to combat the universal state controlled by the now non-creative leaders. The external proletariat seeks to inject its foreign ideas and ways of life into the civilization. The conflict terminates in the dissolution of the universal state when the dominant minority accepts the universal religion of the internal proletariat and takes over the manners and arts of the external proletariat.

The period of "troubles" and decline brings in its wake schisms in the body politic and in the souls of the citizens. The former take the form of class struggles and foreign wars. The latter manifest themselves in mental conflicts, split personalities, personal demoralization and degeneration (cf. Nordau), and divided loyalties.

This is the time for saviors to appear to rescue man from his trials and tribulations. There are many types of saviors: creative geniuses from the dominant minority—those who withdraw and return; saviors with the sword—great warrior conquerors; "Saviors with the Time-Machine," or vendors of utopias; saviors in the guise of Plato's philosopher-kings, such as Marcus Aurelius; and saviors who pretend to be God incarnate, of whom there has been only one whose pretensions were genuine, Jesus Christ. In the past, all of these saviors have failed to save. The hope of Western civilization depends upon our ability to grasp the opportunity which lies in Jesus' divinity and to stage a great religious revival which will bring "peace on earth, goodwill to men," thus making life a sort of perpetual Christmas.

We may conclude with a critical appraisal of Toynbee's work—not only of the condensation under review but of the larger work, as well. In the first place, despite its title, it is not really a history at all, or a "study of history." It is, literally, as Howard Becker pointed out years ago, a "Theodicy," which the dictionary defines as "a vindication of divine justice in permitting evil to exist in the world"—in Toynbee's own terms, allowing man to move from the beatific passivity of the state of *Yin* into the ultimately doomed creative ordeal of the state of *Yang*. This is all interesting, but it is not objective, or even interpretative, *history*. It is theology employing selected facts of history to illustrate the will of God, as the medieval bestiaries utilized biological fantasies to achieve the same results. Toynbee's work differs from that of Orosius and Augustine chiefly in that he makes relatively more use of the deeds of men rather than of divine figures to prove the same case.

Toynbee's vast materials throw far more light upon the processes of Toynbee's mind than upon the actual processes of history.

Not only is Toynbee's aim and motivation divergent from those of the historian of civilization, but he has little technical preparation to execute a vast comparative history of civilization. He is a mystic, a classicist, a capable political historian, and a publicist. And he has oceans of that charm which he regards as the source and sign of creativity. But he does not possess the indispensable command of the techniques and subject matter of cultural anthropology, historical sociology, and social history which, whatever else may be said against him, Sorokin did possess. Many commentators have stressed Toynbee's great erudition and industry and his command of many languages. This may be freely, almost enviously, conceded. But the vital point here is not how much one can read or in how many languages, but whether or not he has read the "right things"—the indispensable materials for the task in hand. Here it must be said that Toynbee fails to measure up to the test. It would have been far better if he had read the relevant literature which exists in the English language alone. This failure to command the essential techniques has made it impossible for Toynbee to make competent use of what he has read—which is vast and immense. His theological orientation and *motif* leads to a definite pattern of selection and interpretation of historical materials. He writes history as he thinks it should be to further the cause of salvation rather than as it has really been.

Even without this theological distortion, it would have been difficult for Toynbee to compose a great history of civilization because of his lack of adequate acquaintance with cultural anthropology, historical sociology and social history. This is devastatingly illustrated by his basic thesis that all civilizations have been essentially contemporaneous because they have all sprung up within the last 6,000 years or so. He thus ignores the fact that greater changes in human life and institutions have taken place in the last 6,000 years than in the previous million—and that the transformations of the last two centuries are greater than those which occurred in the previous 5,000 years. To try to compare the civilizations of pre- and post-Industrial Revolution times in any literal and exact sense is a flagrant defiance of true historicity. To overlook or minimize the role of science and technology in history is to neglect

what is probably the most dynamic and crucial element in human development—certainly such in the period since 1500 A.D.

There happens to exist one historical work which has done just what Toynbee's admirers imagine he has done. This is Ralph E. Turner's *The Great Cultural Traditions*. Nothing could be more edifying and illuminating in the case at issue than to read and compare these two books. Turner had the preparation to write a real history of civilization and was willing to leave theology to the theologians.

As sociology, Toynbee's work has been hailed by some as a masterly contribution to what is called the "culture case study" method. Unfortunately, Toynbee had his "case" all made out before he studied it comparatively. He formulated his "case" in advance and then gave it plausibility by seeking and selecting comparable data from other "cases" to vindicate his original "case." The shortcomings of Toynbee as an exemplar of the culture case study method can best be comprehended by comparing his work in this respect with that of great masters in the field, such as Emile Durkheim and Max Weber.

Toynbee revives in historiography and sociology the erroneous method of the older evolutionary anthropologists who thought out in advance a pattern of cultural development and then sought ethnographic data rather promiscuously to confirm their theses. Toynbee built up a comparable scheme of human development. Spengler had written at length about the inevitable death of successive cultures. Reade had anticipated the notion of challenge and response. Toynbee's studies of Greek civilization had strongly suggested the rivalry of parochial states. His knowledge of the Roman Empire presented him with the fact of the creation of a universal state to curb the conflicts between parochial states within a civilization and with the panorama of the decline of a great universal society. Christianity provided the universal church. Rostovtzev had anticipated the idea of an internal and external proletariat. Toynbee wove all these notions into his Theodicy and the result was the basic concepts of *A Study of History*. Then he combed the materials on his 21 civilizations to confirm his pattern of history and to elucidate his moral and theological conceptions. It is not unfair to say that he is more in error than evolutionary anthropologists like Lewis Henry Morgan, who held firmly and steadfastly to natural, evolutionary

forces and did not invoke the hand of God in their behalf. Morgan is as far ahead of Toynbee here as Herbert Spencer's *First Principles* was of Augustine's *City of God*. If one wishes to get some notion of Toynbee's status as an historical sociologist, there would be no better exercise than to compare his book with William Christie MacLeod's *Origin and History of Politics*.

For the excessive adulation of his book and the fantastically extreme estimates of its nature and significance—such as calling Toynbee the Copernicus and Einstein of historiography and claiming that historical writing must be regarded henceforth, as B.T. (before Toynbee) and A.T. (in the year of Toynbee and of Our Lord)—it is unfair to blame Mr. Toynbee. From my friends who have met him personally, I gather that he is a simple and modest man, intent only upon doing good in the world.

HARRY ELMER BARNES

Cooperstown, N.Y.

A Free and Responsible Press. Report of the Commission on Freedom of the Press, with a foreword by Robert M. Hutchins. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1947. xii, 139 pp. \$2.00.

With \$200,000 from Henry Luce's *Time*, Inc., and \$15,000 from *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, Inc., Robert M. Hutchins and a Commission of ten other academicians, a banker, and a poet arranged for the writing of six special studies and of a general report, *A Free and Responsible Press*. The term, press, is used by the Commission to refer to all the major mediums of mass-communication.

In line with Hutchins' preference for discussional speculation rather than for conclusions based upon carefully scrutinized facts of observation, he admits in his foreword that the Commission "did not conduct elaborate 'research.' It sought facts to fill out gaps in its information or to answer questions which arose in the course of its discussions. In full session or in committee the Commission has heard testimony from 58 men and women connected with the press. The staff has recorded interviews with more than 225 members of the industries, government, and private agencies concerned with the press. The Commission held 17 two-day or three-day meetings and studied 176 documents prepared by its members or the staff." Luce's *Fortune* (April, 1947) found the report clothed in the "obscenity of academic expression" and not very

constructive, but what should Mr. Luce have anticipated when he set up a committee dominated by academic diplomats rather than by sharp-nosed and candid investigators? Even though the report makes points about communications monopolies and lack of representativeness that have been authenticated by many other writers, such a trade paper as *Editor & Publisher* (March 29, 1947) can easily brush it aside as "a philosophical treatise. Its hodge-podge, hardly-understandable language is mostly unsupported hearsay."

After a brief discussion of the present status of mass communications instruments in this country, the Luce-Hutchins Commission makes series of recommendations as to "What can be done through government," "What can be done by the press," and "What can be done by the public." Among other things, the government should somehow maintain competition and at the same time, "where concentration is necessary in communications . . . endeavor to see to it that the public gets the benefit of such concentration." Members of the press, instead of being as hysterically defensive as they are, should "engage in vigorous mutual criticism," and the radio industry should of its own accord "take control of its programs and . . . treat advertising as it is treated by the best newspapers." No more ballyhooing tycoons finding self-expression in whole programs built around "Love That Soap!" And the public through its "nonprofit institutions" and especially its "academic-professional centers" should "help supply the variety, quantity, and quality of press service required by the American people" and facilities for "advanced study, research, and publication." A "new and independent agency to appraise and report annually upon the performance of the press" should also be set up, and universities should be encouraged to establish "centers of advanced study, research, and criticism in the field of communications."

Many would share heartily and fearfully the Commission's view that the "world seems on the brink of suicide," that the "ultimate catastrophe can be avoided only if adult citizens of today can learn how to live together in peace." But few academicians can afford the luxury of objective research in such a field as communications, the communications of here and now, the really pressing problems of the use of communications instrumentalities in the current crucial power struggles. Reports of objective research, too, cannot be expressed in terms of

glittering generalities, the instruments of those who would appear magnificent at a minimum cost. Such reports must deal realistically and in detail, to be objective, with what the report refers to vaguely as "instances of press lying," with "concentration . . . in the power of advertisers, of labor organizations, of organized pressure groups [even of the National Association of Manufacturers, it fails to add]—all capable of impairing the free interchange of news and ideas."

The Luce-Hutchins Commission asks us all to be nice reasonable people. It wants us to face the horrible realities of 1947, get together, voluntarily yield property rights, risk professional status, break ingrained traditional modes of thought and behavior, and save our civilization in this and other ways from self-destruction. The report is nothing more than another desperate effort of sincere men to mitigate social evils with pleas for intelligent cooperation.

ALFRED McCLEUNG LEE

Wayne University

The American Radio. By LLEWELLYN WHITE. A Report on the Broadcasting Industry in the United States from The Commission on Freedom of the Press. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1947. xxi, 260 pp. \$3.25.

This is one of six special studies undertaken as a part of the work of the Luce-Hutchins Commission on Freedom of the Press presumably as summaries of background materials for the Commission's general report, published as *A Free and Responsible Press*. In *The American Radio*, White and his staff associates digest information on the history of broadcasting with special reference to the efforts at self-regulation and to the operation of governmental controls. Unfortunately for its usefulness, the book lacks an index. In the eighth chapter, White offers a long series of detailed recommendations for the making of "American radio not merely the best in the world but the best it would be possible to achieve." Despite a wealth of evidence to lead one to predict the futility of such idealistic recommendations, White urges the industry to perform superhuman feats of intelligent reformation and the Federal Communications Commission to accomplish superpolitical feats of policy clarification and industrial policing.

ALFRED McCLEUNG LEE

Wayne University

The Future of Housing. By CHARLES ABRAMS.

Harper and Bros. New York, 1946. xix, 428 pp. \$5 (Cloth)

This book constitutes a major contribution to the current discussion and consideration of the elements of a sound, coherent, and comprehensive national housing policy. It adds significantly, at the same time, to the literature of analysis of housing conditions, housing production, housing problems, and housing needs. The descriptive and analytical material, however, is selected and treated mainly in relation to the economic and political issues upon which the volume is focussed.

In the opening section, Abrams reviews the significant aspects of our national housing conditions. American society is shown to provide less adequately, relatively, in regard to the shelter of its population than it does in regard to food, clothing, and the other items in the family budget. The author reviews in a fresh manner the sadly familiar data regarding our periodic housing shortages; regarding the undue proportion of shoddily-built homes and even more shoddily-planned communities; and regarding our tenaciously retained worn-out homes in blighted neighborhoods. He describes the economic and social compulsions under which families purchase homes, and the insecure basis upon which such long-term consumer indebtedness rests. Families purchasing homes during boom periods become the victims of widespread "wash-outs" of equities, such as we experienced in the early 'thirties and to a repetition of which we appear to be drifting again. Abrams emphasizes the social correlates of poor housing and, especially, the implications for the physical and social structure of the community of poorly planned and inadequately maintained housing.

This discussion is followed by a description of the institutions and institutional mechanism by which houses are produced, marketed, and financed. Abrams supplements and amplifies the classic analysis made by Coleen, in the Twentieth Century Fund publication *American Housing*, of the residential construction and marketing industry. In regard to both the rationale of its organization and its technology, the residential construction industry is the most backward of our major industries. The building contractor, who is in most cases a small-scale operator, is overwhelmed and overpowered by the agents in the productive process whom he is presumed to direct and coordinate: subdivider, mortgage lender, materials supplier, subcontractors, and building labor. While there has been

during the past hundred years a gradual trend toward prefabrication in factories and mills of the components of the house, and while there has been, also, during the past two decades increased application of power equipment and mass production on the site, the process of house production remains the most laggard of important industries in becoming industrialized. The prevailing system of real estate sales, financing, and transfers is characterized by equally archaic practices. The net effect of the backwardness and disorganization of the home production and marketing industry is the pyramiding of costs, the pricing of housing out of the reach of the masses, and the skimping on land, materials, design, and structural standards as a means of operating within the existing price structure.

It is in the evaluation of the policies and practices of federal and state governments during the past ten years that Abrams is most positive and most original. The fiscal formulas utilized by the federal government in the Federal Home Land Bank System, the Home Owners' Loan Corporation, the Federal Housing Administration, and the housing provisions of the GI Bill of Rights are judged to be devices which favor narrow interest groups. Mortgage insurance, loan guarantees, and home lending reserves are argued to be subsidies to producers, middlemen, and mortgage lenders which contribute to the survival of anachronistic forms of business enterprise, and are of doubtful long-term value to the home-owner. These established government practices in the field of housing constitute an underwriting and socializing of private losses.

In the final section of the volume, Abrams sets forth ten proposals for overcoming the problems of insufficient and inadequate housing. There is general agreement that at the core of the housing problem—insofar as it can be separated from the general economic problem—is the inability of private enterprise alone to develop the scale of building operations which is required to provide sufficient housing and to permit reduction of unit costs. If we are to make shelter costs consonant with other costs, there can be no circumventing of the necessity to produce housing, as we do other commodities, by twentieth century mass-production methods. Abrams' key proposal is that the government concentrate its activities in the field of initiating and organizing housing construction. The volume

of such construction—to be carried on by local housing authorities after consultation with local planning bodies, but utilizing local, state, and federal funds—would be the margin between total number determined by each community to be required for its needs and the number which can be provided by private enterprise. The bulk of such housing would be sold immediately upon completion to prospective occupants, to persons wishing to invest in soundly planned rental properties, to mutual ownership companies, and to cooperatives. Perhaps between a fourth and a third of such units would have to be retained by local governments for operation on a subsidized basis for occupancy by low-income families who cannot afford economic rents. In undertaking such construction, the government would displace only the building initiator, or speculator, who constitutes a very small segment of the private building industry. The effect would be to expand immeasurably every other section of private real estate and construction activity. Although Abrams comments briefly and not unfavorably, on the provisions of the much-publicized Taft-Wagner-Ellender Bill the general import of both his negative and positive arguments is against the insurance and subsidy methods by which it is proposed in that legislation to encourage private housing development.

"The Future of Housing" contains critical and informative discussions of diverse phases of housing conditions, housing activities, and housing policies. Although the volume as a whole is too polemical to serve as a general introduction or as a text, it will undoubtedly serve as an effective gadfly in a field in which all premises need to be re-evaluated.

JOSEPH COHEN

University of Washington

Caste in India—Its Nature, Function, and Origins. By J. H. HUTTON. Cambridge, University Press 1946.

"The word 'caste,'" writes J. H. Hutton, "comes from the Portuguese word *casta*, signifying breed, race or kind." He then points out that it is easier to indicate the derivation of the term than it is to state its meaning. Caste membership is confined to the offspring of members. Members must marry within the group, and many castes have fixed occupations. There are lesser characteristics of caste, but these are the essential features. The author qualifies this description of caste in India by noting the

presence of sub-castes. He further notes a certain fluidity which leads caste groups to split into sub-castes and which occasionally leads castes having the same occupation to unite.

Conquest, migration, occupational specialization and isolation all play their parts in establishing castes. Once a caste is established, however, it tends to perpetuate itself, and will survive unless it is destroyed from within by sterility or from without by external enemies. Castes are ordinarily met with in relatively stable communities.

Mr. Hutton insists that there are no true castes outside of India. He admits, however, that in adjacent countries social relationships often display some of the caste characteristics.

"Caste in India" is a scholar's book, bristling with references to anthropological detail, emphasising minute differences and insisting upon fine shades of meaning. Whether he succeeds in establishing his contention that caste is a social phenomenon peculiar to India, experts on the subject must decide. The average student of sociology will note the assertion and pass on to other equally dogmatic statements. Before he closes the book, however, he will register his thanks for an elaborate examination of a topic that is becoming increasingly important for the totalitarian western world.

Spence MEARING

Jamaica, Vermont

Group Process in Administration

B. TRECKER, with a foreword by GRACE LOUCKS ELLIOTT. New York: Columbia's Press, 1946. 127 pp. No price indicated.

The literature of social agency administration apart from public welfare is extremely limited and has been unduly influenced, perhaps, by the authoritarian concepts of industrial organization. In contrast, Trecker, who is an associate professor in the Graduate School of Social Work, of the University of Southern California, emphasizes democratic participation and the application of group work and community organization methods as being there in harmony with the objectives of social work.

The function of administration, he thinks, is to provide leadership in coordinating the various groups comprising the agency. It is an inherent part of social work, not merely executive or other facilitative techniques. Administration is an interactionary process characterized by circular rather than hierarchical relationships and with

responsibility widely distributed. Executives, employing democratically delegated authority to promote commonly accepted objectives, are defined as "central persons working *with* rather than *over* the others in the organization." (p. 60).

While not a systematic treatise this little book of seven short chapters is exceedingly stimulating and suggestive, particularly in its treatment of committee techniques. One is tempted at times to wonder, however, whether the author conceives of administration primarily as a means of making services available to clients or as a device for staff development!

ERNEST B. HARPER

Michigan State College

The Folktale. By STITH THOMPSON. The Dryden Press, N.Y., 1946. 510 pp., \$6.00. (Cloth)

The study of folklore has occupied an all too unrecognized niche in interstices between the humanities and social sciences. Unanalytical, collecting minds have preserved a great body of recorded tales. These old stories have received their most thorough treatment by philologists and others with traditional interest. Ethnologists have not regarded the folktale as an important cultural complex. Some "functional" anthropologists and psychologists of psycho-analytic bent have utilized the folktale in non-historical context. Modern sociologists have had little to do with folklore, letting it bear the stamp of the questionable Frazee approach. For the specialist in modern urban society, the folktale is passé. For the student of human society, the folktale should have import.

Professor Thompson speaks with authority. He is the author of the six volume *Motif-Index of Folk-Literature*, which is the standard taxonomic reference index in this field. His new book, *The Folktale*, is addressed to the serious student but not to the folklore specialist. It is the door through which an inquiring mind may approach the otherwise rather forbidding mass of literature in the field. Three-quarters of the volume is given over to the consideration of the motifs and history of the most important folktales of the old and new worlds. The remainder of the work treats with folklore theories; how folktales are collected, classified and analyzed; and the telling of such tales as a "living art." In the theoretical section one misses the most recent psychological approach. Nevertheless, no other volume provides greater

breadth of understanding of the ramifications of the folklore field for those unacquainted with it. Superb documentation and appendices of reference works provide the clues to satisfaction

of any further appetite for the field which the book may create.

HORACE MINER

University of Michigan

BOOK NOTES

Annexation. Dayton City Planning Board: Dayton, Ohio, Jan., 1946. Pp. 73 and appendix. (Mimeographed)

This is a study of the arguments for and against annexation of adjacent lands to the city

of Dayton, Ohio. It is concluded, partly from deductions and partly from empirical materials, that annexation is essential to Dayton's welfare. The study contains interesting comparative data on costs of services within and without the city.

NOTE: The Review would like to correct a mistake made in the Book Review section of the June issue. Under the book entitled, "New Farm Homes for Old: A Study of Rural Public Housing in the South," written by Rupert B. Vance and Gordon W. Blackwell, and reviewed by Charles R. Hoffer, line 16, page 371, should have the figure 2.85 instead of 2.35, referring to the number of million farms whose economic base was inadequate to provide the housing needed.